

# Towards a Historical Grammar of Balochi: Studies in Balochi Historical Phonology and Vocabulary

Agnes Korn

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# Towards a Historical Grammar of Balochi Studies in Balochi Historical Phonology and Vocabulary

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zur Erlangung des Grades einer Doktorin der Philosophie
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# **Abbreviations**

# **Grammatical expressions**

1sg. first singular (the other persons are abbreviated accordingly)

acc.
accusative
adj.
adjective
adv.
adverb
aor.
aorist
caus.
causative
cop.
copula

comp. comparative

dat. dative

dem. demonstrative dim. diminutive

du. dual gen. genitive indef. indefinite inf. infinitive instr. in strument alipr. imperative intransitive itr. neg. negative nominative nom. obl. oblique part. participle perf. perfect plural pl.

postp. postposition

pref. prefix

prep. preposition
pres. present
pron. pronoun
sg. singular
subj. subjunctive
suff. suffix

suff. suffix tr. transitive

## Languages

Ar. Arabic
Arm. Armenian
Av. Avestan
Bal. Balochi
Br. Brahui

BSogd. Buddhist Sogdian CBal. Common Balochi

Chor. Choresmian

CNP contemporary Standard New Persian of Iran CTurk. contemporary Standard Turkish of Turkey

EBal. Eastern Balochi EIr. Eastern Iranian

Engl. English
Europ. European
Georg. Georgian
Germ. German
Hung. Hungarian
IE Indo-European

Ind. Indic Ir. Iranian

IrBal. Balochi dialects spoken in Iran

It. Italian Khot. Khotanese

Kurd. Kurdish (Kurmanji)

Lhd. Lahnda

MBal. Middle Balochi (reconstructed)

MIr. Middle Iranian MP Middle Persian

MPM Manichæan Middle Persian MPZ Zoroastrian Middle Persian

NInd. New Indic

NP New Persian (classical, unless otherwise indicated)

NWIr. North Western Iranian

OAv. Old Avestan

OInd. Old Indic (Vedic, Sanskrit)

OIr. Old Iranian
OP Old Persian
Orm. Ormuri

Abbreviations 13

Osset. Ossetic Pers. Persian

PIE Proto-Indo-European
PIIr. Proto-Indo-Iranian
PIr. Proto-Iranian
Pnj. Panjabi
Prth. Parthian

PrthI Parthian inscriptions
PrthT Parthian from Turfan

Psht. Pashto

SBal. Southern Balochi

SEBal. Southern and Eastern Balochi

Si. Sindhi Sogd. Sogdian

SWBal. Southern and Western Balochi

SWIr. South Western Iranian

Taj.TajikiTurk.TurkicUr.Urdu

Ved. Vedic Sanskrit WBal. Western Balochi WIr. Western Iranian

WMIr. Western Iranian of the Middle Iranian period

YAv. Young Avestan

Zaz. Zazaki

# Cover symbols and other signs

C: any consonant

K: any plosive

T: any voiceless stop

D: any voiced stop

X: any fricative

Θ: any voiceless fricative

H: any PIE laryngeal

S: any dental sibilant or affricate

R: any sonorant

N: any nasal

L: any liquid

V: any vowel E: PIE \*a,e,o

#: word boundary

\*: emendation (word found in another form, but to be read thus)

<sup>‡</sup>: word (form) the existence of which is not sure

†: non-existing word (form)

O: word not found in EAL (symbol used in III)

## **Bibliographical abbreviations**

ABG = AHMAD 1985

BMC = glossary in BARKER/MENGAL 1969/II (pp. 403ff.)

DTB = glossary in DAMES 1891 EAL = ELFENBEIN 1990/II EVM = ELFENBEIN 1963

EWAia = MAYRHOFER 1992-2001

FBB = FARRELL 1990 GCD = GILBERTSON 1925 GEB = GEIGER 1890 IEW = POKORNY 1959

KEWA = MAYRHOFER 1956-1980

LIV = Rix (ed.) 2001

Pa = PASTNER 1978:269ff. (abbreviation used in III 2) Pe = PEHRSON 1966:36ff. (abbreviation used in III 2) Rz = RZEHAK 1991:185f. (abbreviation used in III 2)

SHG = SAYAD HASHMI: Sayad Ganj. The First Balochi Dictionary. Karachi 2000

#### **Preface**

It is high time that something was done about the orphaned state of Balochi studies. Elfenbein 1990/I:1

In the Introduction to his Anthology of Classical and Modern Balochi Literature, Josef Elfenbein has outlined the desiderata in Balochi linguistics as follows: there is "no systematic description of the language, no dictionary, no comprehensive description of the dialects". More than ten years later, the situation has changed insofar as a comprehensive Balochi-Balochi dictionary (Sayad Ganj) is now available, and a series of workshops and conferences held at Uppsala University has brought to light important new material from a wide range of dialects. However, since most of Elfenbein's statement unfortunately is still true (and will probably continue to be so for some time), any study about the history of the Balochi language as a whole must remain tentative in several aspects. Nevertheless, as the last (also the first and only) systematic treatment of Balochi historical phonology, viz. GEIGER 1890 and 1891, is now more than one hundred years old, one may consider it worthwhile to use the data gathered in the past century to undertake a fresh look at the history of the Balochi language.

The present book is a revised version of my PhD thesis submitted to and defended at the Johann-Wolfgang-Goethe University Frankfurt a.M. in 2003. During the writing of the present study, many teachers, colleagues and friends have kindly extended their much appreciated help to me. The staff of the Department for Comparative Linguistics has supported my work in many ways. Sabir Badalkhan, Carina Jahani, Joachim Matzinger, Gerhard Rammer and Pakzad Yusefian have provided me with data and writings. I am indebted to Georg Buddruss, Desmond Durkin-Meisterernst, Jost Gippert, Christian Rammer, Ralf-Peter Ritter, Lutz Rzehak and Nicholas Sims-Williams, who read previous versions of the present study, drew my attention to language material and references, and saved me from many errors I would otherwise have committed. Special thanks are due to Jost Gippert, Desmond Durkin-Meisterernst and Nicholas Sims-Williams, who have patiently discussed all sorts of linguistic problems with me, and to Christian Rammer for, among many other things, making the maps in the appendix. Bernice Archer helped with proof-reading, for which I am very grateful. Jost Gippert has accompanied the work on the present study with continuous sympathetic interest in the major and lesser questions that the study of the Balochi language and its history involves. Needless to say, all remaining errors are my own. - I am thinking with grateful memories of the late Jochem Schindler, who kindled in his students the love for historical phonology and taught us to appreciate the beauty of sound laws.

Balochi belongs to the less intensely studied Modern Iranian languages. It has, however, fascinated those who studied it by its archaic appearance in phonological matters. In spite of the relatively small number of academic works devoted to Balochi linguistics, the language is of great importance both for Iranian studies and for historical linguistics.

Balochi is of particular importance for the study of the history of the Iranian languages since (in contrast to all other modern Iranian languages) it directly reflects the Old Iranian consonants in all positions of the word: "Von allen Dialekten [i.e. Iranian languages] hebt sich das Balūtschī durch grosse Ursprünglichkeit glänzend hervor. (...) Das Balūtschī repräsentirt also in den wichtigsten Punkten des Consonantismus eine Sprachstufe, die um rund 1500 Jahre hinter der Gegenwart zurückliegt" (GEIGER 1901:417). Although the remarkable archaicity noted by Geiger might be the result of somewhat more complex processes than hitherto assumed (cf. II 2.1.1, IV), Balochi is a key witness for the reconstruction of earlier stages of the Iranian languages for which the evidence is often scarce or difficult to interpret.

Among the contemporary Iranian languages, Balochi occupies an important place due to the comparatively large area where it is spoken and the number of its speakers (cf. I 3). A further interesting point is that the Balochi lexicon as well as its historical phonology reflects the contact with a variety of neighbouring languages. The numerous loanwords are not only of Persian and (through Persian and, in some cases, Urdu) Arabic origin, but a number of them also come from Brahui or Indo-Aryan languages. The latter are supposedly chiefly from Sindhi and Lahnda and, in the recent decades, Urdu (cf. I 1.2.1, 3.3).

It follows that Balochistan is an interesting field for the study of multilingualism with a variety of closely related (Persian, Pashto), not so closely related (Indo-Aryan) and unrelated (Brahui) languages involved. It is also a model case for the study of the complex relationship between tribal / ethnic and language identity (cf. I 2.2).

# 1. Aim, Method and Technical Questions

## 1.1 Aim of the present study

The aim of the present work is to contribute to the knowledge of Balochi historical grammar, especially in the field of phonology and lexicology.

It will be seen that with regard to historical phonology, the rules set up by GEIGER 1890 and 1891 are essentially correct insofar as the historical phonology from Old Iranian to the Common Balochi stage (on this concept, cf. I 1.3) is concerned. It is, however, possible today to be more precise concerning quite a number of points. In addition, the developments from Common Balochi into the different dialects could not be treated systematically by Geiger due to lack of data; a treatment of this field will be attempted in II 3.2. Until now, no attempt has been made to distinguish systematically those developments that all Balochi dialects have in common (cf. II 2) from those which seem to be specific to one or some of these (cf. II 3).

As the history of Balochi is closely intertwined with that of Persian and of other Western Iranian languages, it cannot be treated in isolation. In the present work, the Balochi words will be compared to their Persian<sup>1</sup> and Parthian<sup>2</sup> counterparts throughout wherever these are available. Phenomena of the historical phonology or etymology of Persian, Parthian etc. will also be discussed in passing where appropriate. No attempt is made, however, to compare systematically the Balochi material to languages other than Persian and Parthian, neither is the present book intended as a historical grammar of Persian or Parthian or as an etymological dictionary.

# 1.2 Methodological questions

Any study of Balochi historical grammar is faced with several methodological problems. These are briefly outlined below, although a solution is not always at hand.<sup>3</sup>

Persian (Pers.) words will be cited in their New Persian (NP) form (cf. I 1.5.2.4) to give an impression of the synchronic differences and because it is assumed that NP is the Iranian (Ir.) language most readers will be familiar with. In many cases, this form is identical to the Middle Persian (MP) form as found e.g. in MACKENZIE 1986. A note "NP" thus denotes New Persian plus Middle Persian provided that the latter does not differ from the former. Where appropriate and if different from the NP form, the MP word form will also be cited.

Parthian (Prth.) plays a particularly important role for the history of Balochi (Bal.) since it is the only North Western Iranian (NWIr.) language attested from Middle Iranian (MIr.) times. As will be seen, Parthian is not the predecessor of Balochi (nor of any other contemporary Western Iranian (WIr.) language), but the protolanguage of Balochi is likely to have been quite closely related to it.

<sup>3</sup> For the methodological problem of the unevenness of sources, cf. I 1.4.

#### 1.2.1 Loanwords

It goes without saying that a study about historical phonology has to be based on inherited words only and leave all loanwords aside. Now, it is not always obvious which words are to be considered as loanwords. Conversely, it is precisely the study of historical phonology which has to show which words might be genuine and which might not. This task is particularly complicated in cases like Balochi since the language which has exercised the strongest influence, namely Persian, is closely related, and there is not always a straightforward answer to whether a given word is "foreign" (borrowed from Persian) or "genuine" (inherited).<sup>4</sup>

As far as the status of borrowedness or non-borrowedness is concerned, the Balochi lexicon may be said to comprise the following groups of words: first, words which show features typically shown by Bal., but not by Persian words (e.g.  $gw\bar{a}t$  "wind" with Old Iranian (OIr.)  $\mu \bar{a} - 8$  Bal.  $gw\bar{a} - 7\bar{c}c$  "day" with OIr.  $-\bar{c} - 8$  Bal.  $\bar{c}c$ . Second, there are Bal. words which have obviously been borrowed since they show a Persian sound change not observed in Balochi (e.g.  $ba\check{c}ik(k)$  "son" with OIr.  $\mu \bar{a} - 8$  NP  $b\bar{a} - 8$  "fasting" with OIr.  $-\bar{c} - 8$  MP/NP -2z - 8.

However, in many words, there is no context in which one of the typically Bal. sound changes would operate and none for the typically Persian ones either. This means that as far as is known so far, the OIr. input would yield the same result in Balochi and Persian (e.g.  $n\bar{a}m$  "name",  $g\bar{o}s$  "ear"). Here, it is definitely and  $per\ se$  impossible to determine whether a given word is inherited or borrowed. Such words will be marked with the note "= NP", 5 indicating that the word may be genuine as well as borrowed.

This group is augmented by those cases where the borrowing process may have made a foreign word identical to an inherited Bal. one. Since, for instance, NP *x* may be rendered by Bal. *k* in a borrowed word (e.g. Bal. *kabar* "news" from NP-Ar. *xabar*, cf.

<sup>4</sup> It should be kept in mind that any Persian word may be found in Balochi (much like Arabic (Ar.) words in NP), be it instead of or in addition to an inherited Bal. word.

A statement about a Bal. word being borrowed from "NP" is meant to imply that the borrowing may have taken place at any time when the Pers. word form was the one as seen in NP, in many cases thus including MP.

The same phenomenon may of course occur with languages other than Persian, e.g. *sun-* "hear" is "= Urdu" in the sense described above. However, as Indic (Ind.) languages are not as closely related to Balochi as Persian, such cases are not as common.

II 1.2.2), the borrowing of e.g.  $karg\bar{o}s$  "rabbit" from NP  $xarg\bar{o}s$  cannot be ruled out. Furthermore, a devoicing of word-final consonants often operates in loanwords (e.g.  $kil\bar{\iota}t$  "key" from NP  $kil\bar{\iota}d$ , cf. II 3.3.1.4), so that e.g.  $\bar{a}z\bar{a}t$  "free" and mark "death" may represent borrowed NP  $\bar{a}z\bar{a}d$ , marg, respectively. At the same time, these words conform to Bal. sound changes and may thus also be inherited. As the assumption of a change effected by the borrowing process is necessary, it will generally be assumed in what follows that words of this kind are inherited unless there is evidence to the contrary. It should be kept in mind, however, that they may also have been borrowed.

Some cases remain where the material at hand does not allow one to decide whether the given words may be inherited at all. This situation occurs whenever the development of some OIr. sound or combination of sounds into Balochi is not clear since all relevant words are identical with the Persian ones, which means that they may have been borrowed from Persian. For instance, all Bal. examples for OIr.  $\vartheta \mu$  (e.g.  $\check{car}$  "four",  $\check{cil}(l)$  "forty", cf. p. 120) are identical with the corresponding Pers. words, so that there is no unambigous evidence about the Balochi outcome: Balochi might show OIr.  $\vartheta \mu > h$  as does Persian (in which case each of the examples may still be either genuine or borrowed), or it might show some other result (in which case all examples are loanwords), but there is no way to decide this matter.

In several cases, the only course available is to determine to which of the mentioned groups a given Bal. word belongs and with what sort of probability it might be a loanword or inherited.

#### 1.2.2 Dialects

From a synchronic point of view, there is no such thing as "the Balochi language", but rather a "sometimes bewildering variety of speech forms" (FARRELL 2003:169).<sup>8</sup> Therefore, it is crucial to determine the variety a given Balochi word belongs to. The problem with assigning a word to some dialect (cf. I 3.1) is that Balochi dialectology is still in its infancy. The mobility of the Balochi speaking people, interdialectal borrowing etc. make the establishing of dialect characteristics difficult (cf. I 3.3).

Bal. *panč* "five" is such a case: it is the form expected for Balochi from OIr. *panča*. Since all Bal. numbers are likely to have been borrowed from Persian (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:78), however, one may assume that the word has been borrowed from NP *panj* along with the rest of the numerical system (cf. KORN, frthc. 3).

<sup>8</sup> For the corresponding lack of a standard orthography, cf. p. 38.

# 1.3 The concept of Common Balochi<sup>9</sup>

In an attempt to offer at least a partial solution for some of the problems named above, the concept of Common Balochi (CBal.) is used here. The term is meant to denote the stage of Balochi immediately prior to the splitting into different dialects. From a methodological point, the term has the advantage that it makes explicit which developments are assumed to be attributed to the Balochi dialect group as a whole and which ones should be ascribed to some specific dialect(s).<sup>10</sup>

The existence of a Common Balochi stage, inherently probable, is made likely by the fact that it is indeed possible to reconstruct such a stage, that the contemporary varieties may be derived from it by the assumption of changes which are of a kind as may occur in varieties of a language and are in some cases even demonstrable by the presence of unchanged variants. This model is also in line with the historical details as assumed by various authors (cf. I 3.2.1). Common Balochi might be posited for a period prior to the migration of the Baloch into what is presently Pakistani Balochistan, i.e. prior to the contact with Ind. languages.

Consequently, the discussion of Balochi historical phonology is done in two parts: chapter II 2 discusses the development of OIr. sounds into Common Balochi, chapter II 3 presents the phenomena which are likely to have happened in a post-Common Balochi stage.<sup>11</sup> In both chapters, a table gives a survey of the sound changes treated.

## 1.4 Sources<sup>12</sup>

Unfortunately, there are not enough data for any Balochi dialect, and the quality and approach of the existing sources differs markedly. The main sources are the following:

<sup>9</sup> The first (and hitherto rather isolated) use of the term "Common Balochi" seems to be MORGENSTIERNE 1948:255, where it is used without further comments.

One of the implications of this model is that the fricatives of Eastern Balochi  $(f, \vartheta, x)$  are secondary developments of Common Balochi p, t, k, and not something preserved (cf. II 2.1.1, 3.2.1.1.1).

<sup>11</sup> GEIGER 1891 treats Bal. historical phonology the other way round, i.e. by noting the OIr. sources for each Bal. phoneme. Given the dialectal variation, this seems less useful: Geiger thus has to note the Eastern Bal. (EBal.) phonemes separately, stating which phoneme of the other dialect it derives from. Geiger thus in fact enumerates Southern and Western Bal. (SWBal.) phonemes (assumed to be identical with CBal. phonemes) to describe their sources, and to derive EBal. from them.

<sup>12</sup> Cf. also Elfenbein 1985:226f. and Rossi 2000 for a description of sources. For the abbreviations used in table 1, cf. the descriptions on p. 23ff.

source	ource dialect(s) material			
ABG	varied, marked EBal. element	Ašfaq Aḥmad 1978		
ВМС	Pakistani WBal.	own material <sup>13</sup>		
EAL	all dialects	all other sources with the exception of ABG, FBB, SHG		
EVM	Turkmenistan WBal.	ZARUBIN 1932, 1949		
FBB	Karachi Bal. (mainly SBal.)	own material		
DTB	EBal.	own material		
GCD	EBal.	Dames, MAYER 1910, own material		
GEB	various dialects	LEECH 1838, GLADSTONE 1874, PIERCE 1874, MARSTON 1877, MOCKLER 1877, DAMES 1881, HITTU RAM 1881, LEWIS 1885, three manuscripts from the 19th century		
SHG	mainly SBal.			
BUDDRUSS 1988	Afghanistan WBal.	own material (one informant)		
COLLETT 1983	Omani Balochi (SBal.)	own material		
Morgenstierne 1932, 1948 etc.	various dialects	earlier sources (DTB, GCD and those of GEB) and own material		
NAWATA 1981	Afghanistan WBal. own material			
SPOONER 1967	Iranian Bal.	own material		
several works from the Soviet Union	Turkmenistan WBal.	ZARUBIN 1932, 1949, possibly also additional material		
1. Main sources used for the present work and their data bases				

The Eastern Bal. dialects, mainly treated in works by British officers, are based on material collected in the second half of the 19th century, reflect the scientific practice of the time, and are written by non-native speakers; modern sources are basically nonexistent. Research on the Western and Southern Bal. dialects, on the other hand, is from

<sup>13</sup> With respect to the theoretical basis and some dialect material, BMC (also) depends on previous works, e.g. Elfenbein 1966 and Spooner 1967 (cf. Rossi 1979a:206).

about a century later. Some dialects have not been treated systematically at all, let alone the dialectal differences within each of the three groups. It is thus sometimes difficult to assess whether a given difference in the variants of a certain word is to be attributed to a difference in time or to dialectal differences or even to the scientific method involved. The markedly differing approaches, the uneven quality and the time gap present in the studies on the Balochi dialects amount to a methodological problem, the importance of which will be evident in many of the following pages. Any statement about dialectal features must thus necessarily remain tentative.

The following paragraphs describe those sources on which the present work is mainly based, as well as a number of additional sources.

#### 1.4.1 Balochi dictionaries

ABG: According to the preface of MUMTAZ AHMAD's *Baluchi Glossary* (1985), the source of the book is AŠFAQ AḤMAD et al. (eds.): Haft- $zub\bar{a}n\bar{\iota}$  lugat (Lahore 1978). Ahmad also states in the preface that the book is based on the Raxšānī dialect. In fact, however, it contains a considerable number of words obviously of Eastern Balochi origin (verbs with infinitives in -ag, words in  $-\bar{a}\bar{o}$  (i.e.  $/-\bar{a}\beta/$ , corresponding to non-Eastern  $-\bar{a}b$ , e.g.  $xar\bar{a}\bar{o} < xar\bar{a}b$  "bad"). The book thus presents a selection of words from diverse dialects, with a sizeable portion of Eastern Balochi words. It is thus an important source for Eastern Balochi, for which otherwise modern sources are lacking, and has the additional advantage of being independent from the older sources.<sup>15</sup>

<sup>14</sup> Note e.g. that the lists making up the majority of the early sources were assembled by asking people "How do you call X in Balochi?", which involves certain methodological problems. The early date of this material along with limited knowledge of Balochi on the part of the authors is a reason for a number of errors (imperfect recording, inadequate transcription, misprints etc.). Since more up-to-date information about the Eastern Bal. dialects is lacking, it is not always possible to be sure whether a given word involves some error.

<sup>15</sup> There are numerous errors in this book. However, since the words are given both in Arabic orthography and transcription, it is in most cases possible to find out what is intended. The criteria for the selection of vocabulary items remain unclear: some words appear in two or even more (dialectal or other) variants without discernible reason; there is a marked redundancy in some fields (e.g. each of the entirely regular numbers 71-79 is noted separately, with the exception of 75 and 78), contrasting with lack of information in others. The latter phenomenon is probably due to chance since AšFAQ AHMAD 1978 is based on word counts.

EAL: The *Glossary* (vol. II) of Josef ELFENBEIN's *Anthology of Classical and Modern Balochi Literature* (1990) is much more than a glossary for the texts assembled in vol. I of the work. The glossary is rich in material, good to use and draws upon a variety of sources. The author has also incorporated some of the material found in earlier works on Balochi. This means that the glossary is not necessarily an independent testimony about the existence or form of a given word. In many cases, EAL notes the dialect(s) a word belongs to, and these notes will be cited in the following chapters where appropriate.

EVM: Josef Elfenbein's *Vocabulary of Marw Balochi* (1963) is a glossary for the texts collected by Ivan I. Zarubin in the 1930s (published as ZARUBIN 1932, 1949, cf. I 2.1). It therefore presents the Turkmenistan variety of Western Balochi, which, among other things, is characterised by the absence of h (cf. II 3.2.3.1). Unfortunately, misprints and other errors are quite numerous, some of them corrected by corresponding remarks in EAL.<sup>18</sup>

GCD: George W. GILBERTSON's *English-Balochí Colloquial Dictionary* (1925) presents rich material (not only isolated words, but also phrases and sentences) from Eastern Balochi, mainly gathered from one informant. The dictionary draws heavily on MAYER 1910 and on Dames' works (ROSSI 2000:3, pace ELFENBEIN 1985:226).

SHG: *Sayad Ganj* (2000), the material for which was collected by the late SAYAD HĀŠMĪ<sup>19</sup> and prepared for publishing by a body of editors, is the only Balochi-Balochi dictionary, and one of the very few Balochi dictionaries of considerable size. It is used as the main reference in the present work. The dialect is basically Southern Balochi,

The existence of a few words in EAL seems somewhat uncertain, e.g. *als* "tear", which otherwise only appears in GEIGER 1891:400, 416, the only source being MARSTON 1877. Similar cases are *kap* "foam", which (apart from EAL) is found only in GEIGER 1890:131, who only cites PIERCE 1874, and *rōt* "river" (cf. p. 270). *gužg* "root" cited in EAL obviously comes from MORGENSTIERNE 1927:95, 1932:46 (who learned it from one informant) and is not found anywhere else.

<sup>17</sup> The citation of a dialectal classification of a given word does not necessarily mean that the word is originally from that dialect, and there are a number of cases where one might rather assume some other dialect as "home" of the word or variant in question. Citations like "EAL: Eastern [Balochi]" do not imply an agreement of the present author to the categorisation made in EAL.

<sup>18</sup> Note the remark of caution by the author himself (ELFENBEIN 1985:227) that EVM is only to be used together with the texts.

<sup>19</sup> On the peculiarities of the orthography as advocated by Sayad Hāšmī, cf. JAHANI 1989 (especially pp. 153ff.), TAN 2000:66.

although material of other dialects is included as well. As the book is intended for Balochi readers, grammatical information (e.g. the past stems of verbs) is not given.

In addition, there is an *English-Biluchi* (sic) *Dictionary* of 1910 by Thomas J.L. MAYER (with a considerable number of errors); much of its material again comes from Dames.

In Pakistani Balochistan, several further lexicographical works were assembled mainly in the 1970s, with the double aim of introducing the Urdu language to speakers of Balochi (and/or Balochi to speakers of Urdu)<sup>20</sup> and of saving the heritage.<sup>21</sup> These sources generally suffer from low printing quality, methodological problems<sup>22</sup> and a lack of information necessary for non-native speakers of Balochi.<sup>23</sup>

#### 1.4.2 Other sources

BMC: The two-volume *Course in Balochi* (1969) by Muhammad Abd-al-Rahman BARKER and Aqil Khan MENGAL is a description of Pakistani Raxšānī spoken in the region of Noshke (cf. BARKER/MENGAL 1969/I:xxvi).<sup>24</sup> It is the most detailed (in fact, the only detailed) description of any single Balochi dialect. The second volume also contains a Balochi-English and English-Balochi glossary. In some cases, BARKER/MENGAL seem to be led by some preconception about what the "pure" Balochi form should look like,<sup>25</sup> but, apart from that, BMC is a very valuable, error-free source.

DTB: M. Longworth DAMES' *Text Book of the Balochi Language* (1891), entirely in the Eastern dialect, contains a glossary for the texts.

<sup>20</sup> According to Rossi 2000:4f. the following books belong in this category: <sup>c</sup>AฐĀ ŠĀD: *Balōčī-nāma* (Lahore 1968), MIṬHĀ XĀN MARRĪ / <sup>c</sup>AฐĀ ŠĀD: *Urdū-Balōčī lugat* (Lahore 1972) and the already mentioned *Haft-zubānī lugat* edited by AŠFAQ AHMAD et al.

<sup>21</sup> The following works might be classified as belonging to this category (ROSSI 2000:5): MIŢHĀ XĀN MARRĪ / ṢŪRAT XĀN: Balōčī-Urdū lugāt (Quetta 1970), NAṢĪR XĀN AḤMADZĀĪ: Balōčī kārgōnag (Quetta 1975), Aqil Khan MENGAL: A Persian-Pahlavi-Balochi Vocabulary I (A-C) (Quetta 1990).

<sup>22</sup> In several cases, the works are based on an Urdu word list with the Balochi equivalents added to the Urdu entries. The mix of dialects (no categorisation made) observed in several works is intentional, at least in some of them (Rossi 2000:4).

<sup>23</sup> Vowels are usually indicated partially at best, grammatical information is entirely lacking.

<sup>24</sup> For a review, cf. BUDDRUSS 1971.

<sup>25</sup> BARKER/MENGAL's treatment of dialectal variants with  $\bar{a}$  for ah (cf. II 3.2.3.3) is likely to be one example in point.

FBB: The extremely useful teach-yourself *Basic Balochi* (1990) by Tim FARRELL presents the Balochi spoken in Karachi, which is the city housing the world's largest community of Baloch (at least 1 million native speakers of Balochi according to FARRELL 2003:169), coming from various regions and speaking different varieties of Balochi. Due to its practical approach, the work has the advantage of presenting a purely synchronic picture of Balochi as found in Karachi nowadays and is not influenced by purism, or by traditional, political or other considerations.

GEB: The etymological glossary *Etymologie des Balūčī* (1890) by Wilhelm GEIGER (as well as his *Lautlehre des Balūčī*, 1891) draws upon material from several sources<sup>26</sup> (cf. p. 22), the majority of them describing Eastern dialects, and three manuscripts from the 19th century (cf. p. 33).

Nigel A. COLLETT's *Grammar*, *Phrase Book and Vocabulary of Baluchi* (1983) treats the Balochi spoken by soldiers in the army of Oman. The dialect which is spoken there is for the most part Kēčī which belongs to the Southern dialect group. It is a very valuable source for that dialect, though the vocabulary (a glossary Balochi-English and English-Balochi is provided on pp. 68-171) is centered heavily on military issues.

The Balochi dialect spoken in Afghanistan in the 1970s and 1980s is treated in Tetsuo NAWATA's *Baluchi* (1981) and Georg BUDDRUSS's *Aus dem Leben eines jungen Balutschen, von ihm selbst erzählt* (1988). Both present first-hand material, the second work in the form of a story which is supplemented with a translation, a full glossary and a grammatical appendix.

Data about the Balochi dialects spoken in Iran are found in SPOONER 1967, YŪSEFIYĀN 1992 (Lāšārī) and BARANZEHI 2003 (Sarāwānī).<sup>27</sup>

In addition, there are a number of articles in which Balochi language material can be found, particularly important among these are those by Georg MORGENSTIERNE (especially 1932, 1948) and Josef Elfenbein (e.g. 1961, 1963a, 1985).

<sup>26</sup> It is fortunate that Geiger lists the sources for every word.

<sup>27</sup> Cf. also II 3.2.4.

# 1.5 Technical details

#### 1.5.1 Citation of Balochi words

In the chapters to follow, Balochi words are given in their Southern/Western (SWBal.) form (if available) unless otherwise indicated. The reasons are that nowadays, the sources for these dialects are much more reliable than those for the Eastern dialect and – above all – that the Eastern Bal. forms can for the most part be derived from the non-Eastern ones by applying the rules given in I 3.1.1 and II 3.2.1.1.1, but not vice-versa.

Balochi words are cited as they appear in SHG unless otherwise indicated. If a word does not appear in SHG, the source(s) where it is found is/are given.<sup>28</sup> Verbs are cited by their present stem (e.g. *kan-* "do") or by present stem plus past stem (e.g. *kan-* / *kurt* means: the present stem is *kan-*, the past stem is *kurt*).<sup>29</sup>

## 1.5.2 Transcription

# 1.5.2.1 Transcription of names

The transcription of names in the present work follows the principle of omitting diacritics where the name in question is (more or less) generally known, viz. the names of languages (Balochi, Sindhi etc.), of places (e.g. Karachi) and regions (e.g. Sarawan). Diacritics are used in the case of more specialised and/or technical expressions, i.e. tribes, dialects (e.g. Sarāwānī) and provinces. The names of Baloch and Persian individuals are written with diacritics (e.g. SAYAD HĀŠMĪ) unless "English" variants are used by the persons themselves (for istance, when appearing as the author of an English book, e.g. Aqil Khan MENGAL).

<sup>28</sup> This means that words for which no source is given appear in SHG and in most cases also in other sources.

A citation by infinitive is less useful since there are differing infinitive formations found in the dialects, one from the present stem (*kan-ag*), the other from the past stem (*kurt-in*). As the endingless past stem is used in the function of a finite form in SWBal. dialects, it is cited without hyphen (e.g. *kurt*). In Eastern dialects, the past stems of verbs apparently never occur with ending zero, so EBal. past stems will be cited with hyphen (e.g. *kurt*<sup>h</sup>-).

### 1.5.2.2 Phonological symbols

All words cited from Balochi or other languages for which Arabic or another oriental script is used are cited in Latin transcription. The transcription is meant to be mainly phonological (although certain allowances are made to indicate the actual pronunciation)<sup>30</sup> and uses the symbols that are commonly met with in writings on (Iranian) historical linguistics. Avestan (Av.), Proto-Iranian (PIr.), Proto-Indo-Iranian (PIIr.) and Proto-Indo-European (PIE) are noted as in HOFFMANN/FORSSMAN 1996.<sup>31</sup> OIr. diphthongs are noted as *ai*, *au*, PIr. ones *ai*, *au*.

Balochi vowels will be noted as follows:

short:	a		i		и
long: <sup>32</sup>	ā	$\bar{e}$	ī	$\bar{o}$	ū
diphthongs: <sup>33</sup>	ai	au			

Nasal vowels, where they occur (cf. II 3.1.3.3 and II 3.2), are written as  $\tilde{a}$  etc. (short nasal vowels) and  $\tilde{a}$  etc. (long nasal vowels).

<sup>30</sup> These are mentioned in footnotes 32, 33 and in II 1.1. In the chapters on the dialects (II 3.2), further deviations of the principle of phonological notation occur. The phonetic correlates of the phonemic opposition were first established systematically by SOKOLOVA 1953. Modern studies in the phonetics of dialects other than Turkmenistan Balochi are lacking. For a survey of phonetical and phonological studies of Balochi, cf. Rossi 1979a. Some works on Balochi (e.g. BARKER/MENGAL 1969, FARRELL 1990) use a more phonetically oriented notation and note e.g. /a/ as a and /ā/ as a, but such an approach does not have advantages for the present work.

Note especially Proto-Iranian (PIr.) \*ś and \*ź and Proto-Indo-Iranian (PIIr.) \*ć and \*j for the outcome of PIE \*k and \*ģ, respectively (HOFFMANN/FORSSMAN 1996:20, 93, 102 etc.). Syllabic *r* and *l* are noted with circle below (*r*, *l*) to avoid confusion with retroflex sounds. For additional notes on the citation of Persian, Kurdish and Zazaki, cf. I 1.5.2.3f. below.

<sup>32</sup> The marking of the length on  $\bar{e}$  and  $\bar{o}$  is superfluous since (on the phonological level at least) no short counterparts exist, and is thus omitted in many works on Balochi. However, in order to avoid any misunderstandings that might arise when a reader is not aware of the fact that Balochi <e, o> are meant as long, the present author considers it better to mark the length. This notation has the additional advantages of being also the one used for (Middle and most dialects of New) Persian, and of making it possible to note the Bal. phoneme /i/ as e in those dialects which pronounce it thus, i.e. in the Balochi dialects of Iran (cf. II 3.2.4.2); this notation is the one used by those who have written on Iranian Balochi (cf. Spooner 1967, Baranzehi 2003).

<sup>33</sup> The diphthongs may be analysed biphonematically, i.e. as being composed of *a* plus *y*, *w* respectively, but in order to avoid ambiguities of the sort <hawr> which might mean [havr] or [haur], the notation will be *haur* "rain" in the present work.

The transcription of the consonants can be inferred from the table below.

# 1.5.2.3 Transcription of the Arabic alphabet

The Arabic letters are transcribed as follows:<sup>34</sup>

Arabic letter	transcription	notes
1	,	
ب	b	
پ	p	
ت	t	
ئ	ţ	
ث	S, <u>S</u>	Arabic $\underline{t}$ , Eastern Balochi $\vartheta$ , $s$ (cf. II 3.2.1.1.1), otherwise $\underline{s}$
<del>ح</del>	Ĭ	
چ	č	
۲	<u></u> h	
خ	x	
ى	d	
ی	ф	
ذ	z, <u>z</u>	Arabic $\underline{d}$ , Eastern Balochi $\delta$ , $z$ (cf. II 3.2.1.1), otherwise $\underline{z}$
ر	r	
ڻ	ŗ	
ز	z	
ژ	ž	
س	S	
ش	š	

<sup>34</sup> The transcription  $\underline{t}$  etc. for some Ar. consonants is chosen here to avoid confusion with retroflex consonants, which are noted  $\underline{t}$  etc. With regard to the use of the symbols  $\vartheta$ ,  $\delta$ ,  $\beta$  etc. for other fricatives, a transcription  $\gamma$  instead of  $\underline{g}$  might seem more consistent. However, the notation  $\underline{g}$  follows the tradition observed for NP and Arabic.

	.s		
ص			
ض	ż	Arabic d	
ط	<i>.t</i>		
ظ	z.		
ع	c		
ع غ ف	ġ		
ف	f		
ق	q		
ك	k		
گ	g		
J	l		
٢	m		
ن	n		
ڻ	ņ		
U	cf. I 1.5.2.2	occurs as part of nasal vowels	
و	w	occurs also as part of the diphthong au	
0	h		
ی	у	occurs also as part of the diphthong ai	
С	$\bar{e}$		
ء	,		
2. Transcription of the Arabic alphabet			

The letters which occur only in Arabic loanwords (e.g. ص) are replaced by many Baloch and in many sources (including SHG) by the identically pronounced letters also used in inherited words (e.g. س). Since Balochi is predominantly a spoken language, the same policy will be followed in the present work, i.e. a Bal. word containing e.g. في being transcribed with س unless all available sources cite the word with ص.

<sup>35</sup> For the use of the "Arabic letters", cf. II 1.2.1.

#### 1.5.2.4 Additional notes

New **Persian** (NP) words are cited according to STEINGASS 1892 (if not indicated otherwise)<sup>36</sup> with modifications to the transcription of consonants (for which cf. the table above) and with the vowels being noted a, i, u and  $\bar{a}$ ,  $\bar{e}$ ,  $\bar{i}$ ,  $\bar{o}$ ,  $\bar{u}$ . The reason for choosing the classical rather than the contemporary standard variant is that the transcription used here is meant to be phonological, and the variety of Persian with which Balochi has predominantly been in contact is unlikely to have been the contemporary Standard language of Iran (cf. I 1.2.1, 3.3). Where necessary, the Contemporary New Persian (CNP) is given (with JUNKER/ALAVI 1988 used as a reference), its vowels and diphthongs being a, e, o;  $\bar{a}$ ,  $\bar{\iota}$ ; ei, ou. Middle Persian (MP) is cited from, and in the form as transcribed in, MACKENZIE 1986, Manichæan Middle Persian also from BOYCE 1977 and DURKIN-MEISTERERNST 2004.

**Parthian** (Prth.) is cited from BOYCE 1977 and DURKIN-MEISTERERNST 2004. NP, MP and Prth. verbs are cited in the form e.g. NP *kun- / kard* "do" (i.e. present stem *kun-*, past stem *kard*), similar to Balochi verbs (cf. I 1.5.1).

Languages commonly cited in transliteration (e.g. Sogdian, which is as a rule cited from GHARIB 1995) will be found in this form here, too (e.g. Sogd. *wrkr* "leaf").

**Kurdish** (Kurd.) is from, and cited in the form found in, the dictionary Baran RIZGAR 1993 (i.e. Kurmanji) unless otherwise indicated. Thus, the (historically) long vowels are a,  $\hat{e}$ ,  $\hat{i}$ , o,  $\hat{u}$  and the short ones e, i, u. Among the consonants, it is to be remembered that j stands for  $/\check{z}/$ , c for  $/\check{dz}/$  and c for  $/\check{c}/$ . Aspirated stops are marked c etc. here (following a more widely observed practice) while Rizgar has c for the unaspirated ones.

**Zazaki** (Zaz.) words are cited according to MALMISANIJ 1992 unless otherwise indicated, i.e. without marking of the aspiration and with the long vowels noted as a,  $\hat{e}$ , i, o,  $\hat{u}$  and the short ones as e, i, u. As in Kurdish, j is used to denote  $/\check{z}/$ , c for  $/\check{c}/$  and c for  $/\check{c}/$ .

<sup>36</sup> This also means that a cited NP word figures in STEINGASS 1892 if no additional note is made.

<sup>37</sup> In the bibliography, contemporary works published in Iran are given in the CNP transcription.

**Ossetic** is cited according to ABAEV I-IV. In the transcription of Ossetic and **Georgian**, 3 stands for  $\frac{dz}{and}$  for  $\frac{dz}{and}$ .

For reasons similar to those outlined in I 1.5.2.2 for Balochi and since some **New Indic** (**NInd.**) **languages** have short counterparts as well, the length of  $\bar{e}$  and  $\bar{o}$  will also be marked. The implosive consonants found in Sindhi are marked as  $\underline{b}$  etc., with  $\underline{d}$  denoting a retroflex implosive.

# 1.5.3 Marking of loanwords

In many cases, words will be marked as borrowings from "NP-Ar.". This means that the word comes from Arabic originally, is also used in NP and is likely to have been borrowed into Balochi via NP. It is not meant to exclude the possibility that the word also exists in Urdu and might have come from that side. Similarly, "NP-Turk." denotes Balochi loanwords of Turkic origin also present in NP.<sup>38</sup>

#### 1.5.4 Cross-references

The notes "see above" and "see below" refer to a point further up or further down in the same chapter. References between chapters are noted as e.g. "cf. II 3.1.2.3.1".

<sup>38</sup> For "= NP" as notation for potential NP loanwords, cf. I 1.2.1.

## 2. History of research on Balochi

The number of works dealing with Balochi linguistics is not great. The following pages provide a survey.<sup>39</sup>

Research on Balochi started at the end of the 19th century with the British presence in India and the authorities' interest in the languages spoken in their territory. Members of the British colonial institutions collected texts and information about grammar and lexicon. There were hardly any written texts in Balochi<sup>40</sup> apart from three manuscripts in the British Library which contain texts and a glossary,<sup>41</sup> and isolated translations of parts of the Bible by missionaries (cf. GRIERSON 1921:334).<sup>42</sup>

As a product of the collecting activities, a series of small handbooks which usually comprised a grammatical sketch, some texts and a glossary were published<sup>43</sup> (GLADSTONE 1874, MARSTON 1877, HITTU RAM 1881, DAMES 1881, 1891, 1897, 1907, MAYER 1901 etc.). Then, there are the grammars by PIERCE 1874 and MOCKLER 1877.<sup>44</sup> GRIERSON's 1921 description of Balochi in the *Linguistic Survey of India* is based on MOCKLER 1877 and DAMES 1891. Dictionaries were published by MAYER (1910) and GILBERTSON (1925) which (together with the glossaries ELFENBEIN 1963 and 1990:II) remain to this day the only dictionaries providing an interface between Balochi and a European language.<sup>45</sup>

A comprehensive list of relevant publications is given in ELFENBEIN 1989:642ff. and in GRIERSON 1921:335 (for the older works).

<sup>40</sup> Cf. GEIGER 1901:233: "Von einer geschriebenen Literatur kann man kaum sprechen"; ELFENBEIN 1989a:351: "Native writing, apart from a very few isolated productions in the 19th cent., has been largely confined to the 20th cent."

<sup>41</sup> For a description of these manuscripts, cf. GEIGER 1889:72f. and ELFENBEIN 1963a; parts of Codex Additional 24048 (called manuscript "C" by Geiger) have been published by GEIGER 1889a, 1901:247f. and ELFENBEIN 1961 and 1983.

<sup>42</sup> For a survey of the (oral and written) literature in Balochi, cf. JAHANI 1989:21ff.

<sup>43</sup> For a description of the early sources, cf. GEIGER 1889:68ff. and GRIERSON 1921:35. In addition to the handbooks, general ethnographic descriptions with short vocabulary lists appeared, among them LEECH 1838. It seems that LEECH 1838 is the first account about the Balochi language (not distinguishing any dialects yet).

<sup>44</sup> GLADSTONE 1874 and MOCKLER 1877 are based on observations made by others while PIERCE 1874 and MARSTON 1877 contain material collected by the authors themselves (ROSSI 2000:1).

<sup>45</sup> On Balochi dictionaries, cf. I 1.4.1.

### 2.1 Linguistic studies

Western European scholarship, attracted by the conservatism of Balochi phonology, focussed on the historical grammar of Balochi. GEIGER published an etymological glossary (1890) and a treatment of historical phonology (1891) and also wrote the article on Balochi in *Grundriß der iranischen Philologie* (1901).

With the exception of PIERCE 1874 and MARSTON 1877, all the works cited so far focus on the Eastern Balochi dialect(s)<sup>46</sup> since this is the dialect mainly spoken in the area which was under British rule even before 1858. Due to this bias in the early sources, the Eastern dialects occupy a special place in the literature on Balochi dialects.

The next dialect to be studied more closely was the one spoken in the Mary oasis of Turkmenistan (a dialect of the Western group) which was investigated by a number of Soviet scholars: texts were collected (ZARUBIN<sup>47</sup> 1932 and 1949, SOKOLOVA 1963; ELFENBEIN 1963 is a glossary for these texts), sketches of Bal. grammar and of specific linguistic issues appeared (ZARUBIN 1930, SOKOLOVA 1953, SOKOLOV 1956, FROLOVA 1960, RASTORGUEVA 1966) and ethnographically oriented studies (VINNIKOV, PIKULIN 1959, GAFFERBERG 1969) were written. As phonetic research occupied a prominent place in Soviet linguistics, SOKOLOVA also published a detailed study of Balochi phonetics (1953).<sup>48</sup> Other studies of Balochi dialects are BARKER/MENGAL 1969 (a course book in the Pakistani dialect of the Western group) and SPOONER 1967 and 1971 (Balochi of Iran) as well as ELFENBEIN 1966 and 1990/II:VIIff. (survey of dialectal features).

The newly collected material fostered new publications on Balochi grammar (MORGENSTIERNE 1948, ROSSI 1979a, ELFENBEIN 1989 and 1989a) and was the basis for a couple of etymological studies (MORGENSTIERNE 1932, ROSSI 1982, ELFENBEIN 1985). The data were also used for new studies of the interrelationship of the Western Iranian languages (MACKENZIE 1961, WINDFUHR 1975, LECOQ 1989, GIPPERT 1996).<sup>49</sup>

<sup>46</sup> Cf. I 3.1.

<sup>47</sup> Zarubin collected his texts from Balochi speaking Turkmen students who came to Leningrad to pursue their education.

<sup>48</sup> For a survey of the different approaches to Balochi phonetics, cf. Rossi 1979a. It is noteworthy that Balochi was among the first languages to be described in the USSR according to the new methods developed for phonetic and phonemic analysis (Rossi 1979a:181).

<sup>49</sup> The basic work is TEDESCO 1921. For a treatment of the subject, cf. also KORN 2003.

Since the foundation of Pakistan and especially since the establishment of Balochi academies in Karachi (1956) and Quetta (1959) as well as of other bodies which attempt to further research about Balochi and to publish material,<sup>50</sup> the Baloch in Pakistan have themselves begun to investigate their language, especially in the fields of history and poetry. The resulting publications form a new basis for further research.

# 2.2 Ethnolinguistics

The study of Balochi involves interesting issues of language contact, socio- and ethnolinguistics. Areal phenomena have played an important role for the Balochi language since the Baloch have always been in close contact with people speaking other languages (cf. I 3.3). It seems that a sizeable proportion of Baloch has always spoken other languages as well.

Furthermore, the relationship between tribal and ethnolinguistic identity is not yet entirely clear (BARTH 1964:13). It was Denys Bray who already in 1911 found that, in a number of cases, the identification of a tribe as e.g. Brahui or Balochi does not correspond to the language spoken by that same tribe: the members of the Raisānī and the Zarakzāī, who identify as Pathan (i.e. belonging to a tribe of Pashto provenance), do not speak Pashto at all but Brahui, and the leading family of the Raisānīs speaks Balochi. Among the Mīrwārī, who are counted among the original Brahui tribes, Bray could hardly find anybody who spoke Brahui, most people using Balochi instead (findings cited by EMENEAU 1980:335). It seems that "many tribes have changed their language, sometimes more than once" (ELFENBEIN 1982:78).

It would probably be more appropriate to say that the languages in question here have been spoken alongside each other, with varying preferences. Bray reported that members of the leading Brahui families spoke Brahui to some family members and Balochi to others (cf. EMENEAU 1980:335). According to ROSSI 1982:166, in a plurilingual society, the choice of a certain language is comparable to that of a certain style in a monolingual society. It would therefore be interesting to inquire in which circumstances (region, social status, kind of work, settled vs. nomadic way of life) each language is spoken in Balochistan.<sup>51</sup>

<sup>50</sup> Cf. JAHANI 1989:27ff. on the achievements of these institutions.

Note that the censuses carried out in Pakistan are not adequate for the linguistic situation (ADDLETON 1986:56): the 1981 census asked only about the main language spoken in every household (sic), with the result that data on bilingualism (let alone knowledge of further languages) were not collected,

Anthropologists have also been attracted by the Baloch and studied the nomadic life, kinship and hierarchy structures, and the relationship with other ethnic groups. Research into Balochi social structure in general has been undertaken by – among others – Fredrik Barth, Carroll Lewin (formerly Pastner), Steven Pastner, Jean and Robert Pehrson, Philip Salzman, Brian Spooner, Fred Scholz, Farhat Sultana, Nina Swidler and Paul Titus.<sup>52</sup>

and there was complete disregard for the fact that not all persons of a "household" necessarily speak the same "main language". The linguistic results from the 1972 census have not been published due to riots in the province of Sindh. The 1951 and 1961 censuses had asked about the mother tongue of the inhabitants as well as self-assessed fluency in other languages. Add to this the practical difficulties of interviewing people in rural areas, where in many cases the father will answer for the whole family or clan (this phenomenon occurs even in big cities of Turkey, Georg Warning, personal communication), so data on the speech habits of women, children and lower-ranking household members in general may not be as reliable as one might wish.

<sup>52</sup> For a bibliography, cf. TITUS 1996:299ff.

## 3. The Balochi language

The exact number of speakers of Balochi is not known.<sup>53</sup> It has been estimated to be 3.5 million (ELFENBEIN 1990/I:2), 4.5 million (JAHANI 1989:93) or between six and seven million (ORYWAL 1982:84). The area in which Balochi speaking people predominantly live stretches (west to east) from eastern Iran to the lower Indus and (north to south) from Mary in Turkmenistan to the Gulf States, the main areas being south-eastern Iran (province of *Sīstān wa Baločistān*), western Pakistan (province of *Baločistān*) and southern Afghanistan (provinces *Nīmrūz* and *Hēlmand*).<sup>54</sup> The status of Balochi is that of a minority language throughout (cf. I 3.3).

Balochi has been described as belonging to the North Western group of Iranian languages, which means that it shares certain sound changes with (among other languages) Kurdish and Parthian against NP, e.g. z from PIE \*g<sup>(h)</sup> vs. NP d (Bal.  $z\bar{a}m\bar{a}t$ , Kurd. zava "son-in-law" vs. NP  $d\bar{a}m\bar{a}d$ ; Bal.  $z\bar{a}n$ -, Kurd. zan- "know" vs. NP  $d\bar{a}n$ -). On the other hand, Balochi also exhibits some South Western (SWIr.) characteristics. <sup>56</sup>

With regard to phonological matters, Balochi stands out from all other Modern Iranian languages through the (at least seemingly) systematic preservation of Old Iranian

Due to a lack of appropriate data, the exact number can only be guessed at. For a discussion of relevant information available, cf. JAHANI 1989:91ff., ORYWAL 1982:83ff.
The difficulty in establishing the number of speakers of Balochi also results from the fact that many (if not most) speakers of Balochi are bilingual or multilingual to a certain degree (usually not

<sup>(</sup>if not most) speakers of Balochi are bilingual or multilingual to a certain degree (usually not counted in official censuses), that the identification of a person as a Baloch need not mean that he/she speaks Balochi, and, conversely, that the identification of a person as a non-Baloch need not mean that he/she does not speak Balochi (cf. I 2.2).

<sup>54</sup> Cf. the maps in the appendix. Language-oriented maps of Balochistan are difficult to find. There are some in BARTH 1964:15, SCHOLZ 1996:194 (maps of ethnolinguistic groups in Pakistani Balochistan), JAHANI 1989:235ff. (rates of Balochi speaking population in Pakistan etc.), DUPREE 1973:58 (distribution of ethnic groups in Afghanistan), GRIERSON 1921:327 (Balochi dialects), SPOONER 1971:521, 1989:602f. (toponyms in Balochistan).

Language maps are inherently problematic since they do not take into account that people tend to migrate, that they may speak more than one language and/or dialect, that dialect borders overlap etc. The maps in the appendix are thus meant for general orientation only.

<sup>55</sup> Cf. Tedesco 1921, especially p. 252.
The categorisation of Balochi as an Iranian language seems to have been established in 1842 by Christian Lassen (cf. Geiger 1889:65).

<sup>56</sup> For a survey of the NWIr. and SWIr. features of Balochi and the interpretation of the same in historical terms, cf. KORN 2003. Cf. also IV for more discussion of the issue.

consonants (MACKENZIE 1961:72),<sup>57</sup> e.g.  $\bar{a}p$  "water" (Av.  $\bar{a}p$ -/ap-) vs. NP  $\bar{a}b$ , Kurd. av;  $p\bar{a}d$  "foot" (Av.  $p\bar{a}d$ -/pad-) vs. NP  $p\bar{a}y$ , Kurd.  $p\hat{e}$ ;  $r\bar{o}\check{c}$  "day" (Av.  $rao\check{c}ah$ -) vs. NP  $r\bar{o}z$ , Kurd. r'oj. <sup>58</sup>

With regard to grammatical categories, Balochi shows features also seen in some other Modern Western Iranian languages: the verbal system exhibits the dichotomy of present stem (from the old present stems)<sup>59</sup> and past stem (from the old past participle), e.g. *bar-/burt* "take" (NP *bar-/burd*), *jan-/jat* "hit" (NP *zan-/zad*), with an ergative construction in the past tense.<sup>60</sup> There is no distinction of grammatical gender. The case system varies among the dialects; a four-case system (direct, oblique, object case, genitive) plus vocative may be said to represent the basic system.<sup>61</sup>

## 3.1 Balochi as a group of dialects

The fact that Balochi is spoken in the more remote areas of several states, in none of which it is taught in schools,<sup>62</sup> and the resultant low level of literacy in Balochi<sup>63</sup> account for the existence of several regional varieties. None of these is generally accepted as a standard: "In the nature of things, it would be very surprising if there existed a 'standard Balochi', even as a literary language, and in fact there does not" (Elfenbein 1985:226).

Similarly, there is no standard orthography (cf. JAHANI 1989). When Balochi is written at all, it is predominantly the Arabic script in its Urdu (thus in Pakistan, cf. JAHANI 1989) or Pashto (in Afghanistan, cf. RZEHAK 2003) varieties which is used. In addition, "the native orthography, in whatever style of Arabic-derived script employed, has always varied from writer to writer" (ELFENBEIN 1990/I:4). In Turkmenistan, Latin and Cyrillic letters have been used to write Balochi (cf. AXENOV 2000). In Pakistan, sporadic attempts to introduce a Latin orthography for Balochi have not met with success (cf. ELFENBEIN 2000).

<sup>57</sup> For a discussion of this point, cf. II 2.1.1 and IV.

<sup>58</sup> For the transcription of Bal. and other word forms as used in this study, cf. I 1.5.2.

<sup>59</sup> For reflexes of OIr. present stem formations in Balochi, cf. BARJASTEH DELFOROOZ 2003.

<sup>60</sup> The ergative constructions found in the Balochi dialects are described in KORN (frthc. 1).

<sup>61</sup> For further discussion, cf. KORN (frthc. 1, 2). A morphological sketch will be presented in V 1.

<sup>62</sup> The only country where Balochi enjoyed a certain official status – including its use in primary education – was Afghanistan in the years 1980-92 (cf. RZEHAK 2003).

<sup>63</sup> The use of Balochi in writing is still extremely restricted, cf. e.g. FARRELL 2000 and TAN 2000.

Apart from dialects proper, the speech of the nomadic and the settled groups also differs (cf. also II 3.2.4). It seems that this is not only due to a differing way of life, but also to the different regions the groups have come from (SPOONER 1967:56). At the same time, the fact that many Baloch – in addition to the periodic nomadic wanderings – have migrated both within and outside of the Balochi speaking area makes it next to impossible to establish strict dialect borders since speakers of different speech forms have continually interacted.<sup>64</sup> Words have been borrowed from one dialect to another and back again, and hypercorrect forms have come into existence when the speakers wish to express their (real or assumed) membership in a certain dialect community.

# 3.1.1 Isoglosses of Eastern Balochi vs. the other dialects

According to GEIGER 1889:71, MARSTON 1877 was the first to note the existence of at least two markedly differing dialects or rather (as already noticed by GEIGER 1889) groups of dialects, and to establish the most important dialectal differences.<sup>65</sup>

The features which set out the Eastern dialects from the remaining ones were described by GEIGER 1889:75 and by numerous authors in later times (e.g. GRIERSON 1921:337, JAHANI 1989:79ff.).<sup>66</sup>

So far, most studies about Balochi have treated the non-Eastern dialect forms as the Balochi ones proper, thereby implying that it is basically the Eastern dialect which deviates from the rest and that the non-Eastern dialects more or less represent the common Balochi variety. This approach has been criticised by Rossi 1979a:179 who stresses that the dialects have to be treated as systems of equal rights.

Different varieties of Balochi may exist side by side in the same area or town, overlapping and overlaid by different patterns of influences from neighbouring languages (FARRELL 2003:169). For instance, FARRELL 2003:172 notes that many Baloch have come to Karachi from Iran, which makes the Persian element stronger than might be suspected for a Balochi dialect in that region.

<sup>65</sup> Cf. also map 3.

<sup>66</sup> ROSSI 1979a:163ff. surveys the history of the study of the dialectal differences. For a detailed discussion of Eastern Bal. features cf. II 3.2.1.1, for a comparison of the phonological system of the dialects cf. II 1.1.2.

Non-Eastern	Eastern dialects					
dialects	word-initial and postconsonantal position	postvocalic position				
p, t, k	$p^h$ , $t^h$ , $k^h$ (aspirated)	$f, \vartheta, x$ (fricatives)				
b, d, g	b, d, g (no change)	$\beta$ , $\delta$ , $\gamma$ (fricatives)				
č, j	$ \check{c}^h $ (aspirated), $\check{j}$ (no change)	$\check{s}$ , $\check{z}$ (sibilants)				
w	$w^h$ (aspirated) <sup>67</sup>	w (no change)				
3. Isoglosses of Eastern vs. non-Eastern Bal. dialects						

Opinions vary as to the degree of aspiration<sup>68</sup> of word-initial voiceless stops (and  $\check{c}$ , w) and therefore to the degree of difference with regard to the articulation of word-initial voiceless stops in the different dialects.<sup>69</sup> In any case, the aspiration of word-initial voiceless stops is phonologically irrelevant since there is no opposition to unaspirated stops (MORGENSTIERNE 1948:255f.). The other differences, however, do affect the phonemic system: first, OIr.  $\check{c}$ ,  $\check{j}$  yield the same result as OIr.  $\check{s}$ ,  $\check{z}$ , and, second, through the adoption of a massive number of loanwords, the fricatives attain phonological status.<sup>70</sup>

### 3.1.2 Survey of dialect groupings

Right from the beginning of Balochi linguistics, it was clear that there are more dialectal differences than those described in the table above. The number of dialects / dialect groups assumed and the terms for these have differed to some extent. Elfenbein

<sup>67</sup>  $w^h$  is only assumed by some authors, cf. II 1.1.2.2, 3.2.1.1.1.

<sup>68</sup> Note that aspiration is unfortunately not marked consistently in the sources.

GEIGER 1889:75, 1891:403ff. concludes from his sources a marked difference between aspirated stops in the Eastern dialects and unaspirated ones in the others (with the aspiration of ε<sup>h</sup> being less marked and therefore less consistently noted and the aspiration of w<sup>h</sup> only found in some sources, cf. GEIGER 1891:413). According to MORGENSTIERNE 1948:255, aspiration of voiceless stops is general in Eastern Balochi whereas it is at least occasionally heard in the other dialects.

<sup>69</sup> Aspiration of word-initial voiceless stops occurs in other dialects as well (cf. II 3.2.2.1, 3.2.3.1); statements (e.g. SCHMITT 2000:82) about the exclusive existence of aspirates in Eastern Balochi are not correct

<sup>70</sup> It is hard to see how MORGENSTIERNE could have the impression (1948:256) that the coalescence of  $\check{c}$  and  $\check{s}$  to  $\check{s}$  and of  $\check{j}$  and  $\check{z}$  to  $\check{z}$  does not lead "to any disturbance of the phonemic system". For more discussion of these points, cf. II 1.1.2.2.

assumes six dialects, with the difference between the Eastern dialects (in his terminology "Eastern Hill Balochi") and the other dialects being the most marked one. In more recent times, it has been found useful to assume three major dialect groups and to ascribe the subdialects to one of these.<sup>71</sup> The following table shows the dialect groupings as assumed in selected works by some important authors.<sup>72</sup>

GEIGER 1901:232	Southern (Makrānī):	Northern:			
	Eastern group	Western group	Northern, Southern group		
GRIERSON 1921:329	Western (Makrānī)	Eastern <sup>73</sup>			
ELFENBEIN <sup>74</sup>	Raxšānī, Sarāwānī,	Eastern Hill Balochi			
Jahani 1989:74 <sup>75</sup>	Western:		Eastern		
	Raxšānī <sup>76</sup>	Makrānī <sup>77</sup>			
Jahani 2000	Western	Southern	Eastern		
4. Balochi dialect groups as advocated by different authors					

In this study, the dialect picture as assumed by JAHANI 2000, i.e. the three main dialect groups Western (WBal.), Southern (SBal.) and Eastern (EBal.) Balochi, will be adopted.

<sup>71</sup> The possibility of subdialects being transitory ones between two of the groups remains.

<sup>72</sup> For a survey of the evolution of Balochi dialectal groupings, cf. also JAHANI 1989:67ff. and FILIPPONE 1996:10ff.

<sup>73</sup> Since GRIERSON 1921, the terms Western and Eastern Balochi have replaced "Northern" and "Southern".

In the part presenting sample texts, GRIERSON (1921:364ff.) notes dialectal differences within his two major groups. The subdivision given by Bray and quoted by GRIERSON 1921:385f. rests on questionable evidence, however: the opposition *pis, mās* "father, mother" etc. vs. *pit, māt* is due to a specific phenomenon (cf. II 2.1.2.4, 3.2.3.1), and the remaining two examples only show the use of a NP loanword in one and of the genuine word in the other dialect.

<sup>74</sup> This dialect division is assumed by ELFENBEIN 1989:636f. and 1990/II. Earlier dialect divisions (in ELFENBEIN 1966) are considered as needing revision by ELFENBEIN 1989a:361.

<sup>75</sup> This division of the Balochi dialects has probably been motivated by BARKER/MENGAL 1969/II:1ff. The first work which consistently applies a three-fold division of Balochi dialects and uses the terms Eastern, Southern and Western seems to be CARLETON 1987.

<sup>76</sup> The dialects grouped here correspond to Elfenbein's Raxšānī and Sarāwānī. Note that what Elfenbein terms Sarāwānī differs from other descriptions of Sarāwānī (cf. II 3.2.4).

<sup>77</sup> Elfenbein's Coastal, Kēčī and Lāšārī dialects belong here. For Lāšārī, cf. II 3.2.4.

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The topic of mutual understandability of the dialects, although a problematic concept, <sup>78</sup> has been discussed by the majority of those who have written on Balochi, and markedly differing opinions have been expressed. In the earliest writings (e.g. GEIGER 1901:232, based on DAMES 1881:1), the impression was that Eastern Balochi is not understood by speakers of the other dialects and vice-versa.<sup>79</sup> Later on, it was thought that the differences are not marked enough to prevent communication (DAMES 1913:659, GILBERTSON 1923:7), and less important than the ones between certain Pashto dialects (MORGENSTIERNE 1932a:10, stressing the "unity of the language from Merw to Karachi"). In more recent times, evidence has again suggested that interdialectal communication is not as easy as earlier writers had thought: Neil and Valerie Carleton (cf. JAHANI 1989:72) did some intellegibility testing in the 1980s and found that "the greatest barriers to communication exist between the Eastern dialect group and the other dialects", and "there are significant comprehension difficulties at the first hearing of speech in the other dialect" even between Western and Southern Balochi. JAHANI (1989:75) found that speakers with good educational background and travelling experience understand other people's Southern or Western Balochi, but speakers of the same dialect with lack of experience do not. Some Baloch also underestimate dialectal differences because they do not have enough experience with speakers of other dialects<sup>80</sup> and sometimes also for political reasons.

Dialectal differences seem to have become more marked in recent times, due to the growing influence of the educational systems of the respective states and the increased access to mass media. Language contact with the national languages has changed the Balochi dialects spoken in the respective states to a degree that mutual understanding becomes even more difficult than before. On the other hand, it is to be expected that the increased (though still limited) production of written material, cassettes, videos etc. and communication via mailing lists and internet will bring more and more Baloch into contact with other dialects, including those who do not have the opportunity to travel.

<sup>78</sup> The ability to understand another person's dialect depends very much on, among other things, that person's experience with the other dialect and with dialects in general (cf. also JAHANI 1989:75).

GEIGER 1989:89f. and 1901:232 stresses that the differences making mutual intellegibility impossible are to be attributed to the lexical level as well as to phonological matters. In fact, Ind. loanwords do occur in all dialects of Balochi, including those spoken in Turkmenistan today, but their share in the lexicon differs significantly among the dialects.

<sup>80</sup> For instance, Sabir Badalkhan (originally from Turbat, Pakistani Balochistan) noted when meeting Iranian Baloch at a symposion in Uppsala 2000 that dialectal differences are more marked than he had thought.

### 3.2 The Baloch as an ethnolinguistic group

Although it cannot be taken for granted that a given Baloch speaks Balochi nor that everyone speaking Balochi considers him-/herself a Baloch (cf. I 2.2), a short survey on the history and use of the term  $bal\bar{o}\check{c}$  as an ethnonym will be undertaken here.

# **3.2.1** The Baloch in early sources<sup>81</sup>

The earliest documents for the term  $bal\bar{o}\check{c}$  are Arabic sources. The historiographers al-Balādūrī (9th century AD) and aṭ-Ṭabarī (10th century) treat the Arab conquest of Kirman in AD 645; al-Maṣʿūdī, al-Istaxrī and Ibn Ḥauqal (all 10th century) supply geographical information. These sources say that at the time of the Arabic conquest, the mountains of Kirman were inhabited by people called  $k\bar{u}\check{j}$  (also  $quf\check{s}$  or  $quf\check{j}$ ) and  $bal\bar{u}\check{s}$  /  $bal\bar{u}\check{s}$ . During the lifetime of the Arabic writers, the  $k\bar{u}\check{j}$  /  $quf\check{s}$  and  $bal\bar{u}\check{s}$  were still living in Kirman, and the sources give descriptions of their life (summaries in ORYWAL 1982:54ff.).

In Persian sources, the terms  $bal\bar{o}\check{c}$  is found, often together with the term  $k\bar{o}\check{c}$ . The Persian epic  $\check{S}\bar{a}hn\bar{a}ma$  is of particular importance:<sup>84</sup> the poet Firdausī mentions groups of  $bal\bar{o}\check{c}$  in Xorasan and Sistan<sup>85</sup> at the time he was writing (ca. AD 1000). The  $bal\bar{o}\check{c}$  are described as serving in the army of Kai Xusrau (i.e. Kyros II, 6th century BC) which was allegedly composed of diverse groups inhabiting Gilan at that time. Then, the  $bal\bar{o}\check{c}$  (together with other groups) reportedly revolted against Ardašīr Bābākān (3rd century AD) and Xusrau Anōšērwān (6th century AD). The battles of the latter are likely to have taken place in Gilan and Azarbaijan, so that it has been assumed that the Baloch lived in the Caspian region in pre-Islamic times.<sup>86</sup>

<sup>81</sup> For the data discussed in this subchapter, cf. DAMES 1904:26ff., ORYWAL 1982:51ff., ELFENBEIN 1989a:350, SPOONER 1989:606f., 609.

<sup>82</sup> It has to be kept in mind that this information was noted down 300 years after the events took place (ORYWAL 1982:54).

<sup>83</sup> The substitution of  $\underline{s}$  for Iranian  $\check{c}$  is common in Semitic, especially in Arabic, sources (HENNING 1958:60<sup>3</sup>).

<sup>84</sup> For discussion of relevant Šāhnāma passages, cf. BOYAJIAN 2003.

<sup>85</sup> The presence of a larger number of Baloch in Sistan at that time is rather to be doubted (ORYWAL 1982:57).

<sup>86</sup> Note that this fits well with the classification of Balochi as a North Western Iranian language. The Balochi language may thus have come to its present area by the way that has generally been assumed (see below).

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It is far from sure whether the term  $bal\bar{o}\check{c}$  in the sources named above does designate the ancestors of the present-day Baloch, i.e. whether the term is an ethnonym of some sort at all, since it is probable that it was used (synonymous with  $k\bar{o}\check{c}$ ) in the meaning "bandits, robbers, vagabonds" (ELFENBEIN 1989a:350).<sup>87</sup>

In spite of the doubts involved, the following setting has generally been assumed with due caution since DAMES (1904:26ff.): the Baloch could have lived in the Caspian region in pre-Islamic times, from where they might have been driven south by Xusrau Anōšērwān (6th century AD). At the time of the Arab conquest (i.e. in the 7th century AD), they inhabited the Kirman region. The conquest of Kirman by the Seljuks under Toġril Bek (ca. AD 1045) might have been the reason for the eastward migration into what is nowadays the Iranian province of Sīstān wa Balūčīstān.

In contrast to this, the Baloch native tradition from the Daptar Šā<sup>c</sup>irī<sup>88</sup> has it that they are of Arab origin and descendants of Mīr Ḥamza (the uncle of the prophet, s.a.s.), that they came from Aleppo, fought in the battle of Karbalā' on the side of ʿAlī (a.s.)<sup>89</sup> and, owing to the defeat in that battle, migrated to the east. It is to be assumed that this part of the tradition is of a legendary character and has the function of establishing the Baloch as Muslims of the first rank.<sup>90</sup>

With regard to later times, however, the Daptar Šā<sup>c</sup>irī might be (and has been) taken as a historical source. It is said that the Baloch were living in Sistan in the 12th century. At the beginning of the 13th century, they reportedly left for Sindh, probably due to the invasion of Jingiz Khan.<sup>91</sup> It seems that today's Balochi settlements in Sistan are the

<sup>87</sup> Spooner (1989:607) assumes that, at the time the *balōč* were living in Kirman, the term was used by the settled population for (potentially threatening) tribal communities (note that in some parts of Iranian Balochistan this is the meaning of *balōč* even nowadays). The Baloch probably shared no feeling of common ethnicity yet, but, in the course of time, they came to be the "nomads/bandits par excellence" of the region and took over the name given to them. Other tribal communities of the area might have been grouped – or grouped themselves – with them and taken over the language.

<sup>88</sup> The historical epics of the Baloch have been handed down orally under the title of Daptar Šāʿirī. The poems were first collected and edited by DAMES 1907.

<sup>89</sup> The contrast with the fact that nowadays most Baloch are Sunnis is interesting. However, Ibn Ḥauqal (see above) reports that the *balōč* are of Shia faith (ORYWAL 1982:52, 55).

<sup>90</sup> It is indeed possible, though, that some groups of Arab origin have been absorbed into the population that became known as Baloch (SPOONER 1989:609).

<sup>91</sup> For the history of the Baloch in later times, cf. DAMES 1904:36ff., ORYWAL 1982:61ff., SPOONER 1989:609ff.

result of reverse migrations of a later date (ELFENBEIN 1966:28), perhaps in the 16th century. The Baloch found in Turkmenistan nowadays are descendants of groups that came there from Afghanistan and the border regions of Iran only at the end of the 19th century and in the 1920s and 1930s (cf. AXENOV 2000:71 and MOSHKALO 2000).

## 3.2.2 Etymologies of the term balōč

The etymology of the word  $bal\bar{o}\check{c}$  is not clear yet, although a number of suggestions have been made, which will be outlined here.

Native popular etymologies include the derivation of balōč from:92

- \* bad- $l\bar{o}g$  (etymology used by the Indians): bad "bad" (NP, also used in Urdu and Bal.) +  $l\bar{o}g$  "people" (Urdu, also used in Bal.);
- \*bar- $l\bar{u}\check{c}$  (etymology used by the Baloch<sup>93</sup>): bar "desert" (NP) +  $l\bar{u}\check{c}$  "naked"; <sup>94</sup>

The relationship (if any) to NP  $l\bar{u}t$  (note also Kurd.  $r'\hat{u}t$ ) and luxt, all "naked", is not clear.

<sup>92</sup> Cf. DAMES 1904:21.

For the etymologies of words which are discussed in other chapters, cf. the index in V 2.

<sup>93</sup> The legend has it that the forefather of the Baloch, a son of Mīr Ḥamza and a *parī*, was found abandoned in the wilderness (DAMES 1904:21).

<sup>94</sup> Bal.  $l\bar{u}\check{c}$  seems not to have been treated etymologically so far (the same applies to its possible cognates). The second Bal. word for "naked" is  $lu\check{c}(\check{c})$  which might be suspected of being a loanword because of its final geminate (cf. II 3.3.1.5). NP has luxt,  $l\bar{u}t$  and (in older dictionaries, e.g. in 19th century  $\dot{G}iy\bar{a}s$ -ul- $lug\bar{a}t$ )  $l\bar{u}\check{c}$ , Tajiki has luxt and  $lu\check{c}$ .

Pashto  $l\bar{u}c$  and  $l\bar{\sigma}c$  have obviously been borrowed from  $l\bar{u}\check{c}$ ,  $lu\check{c}$  (the latter probably from Taj.) respectively, since OIr.  $\check{c}$  /V\_ gives Pashto j (e.g. wraj vs. Bal.  $r\bar{\sigma}\check{c}$  "day", cf. GEIGER 1893:212), and c is often substituted for  $\check{c}$  of loanwords when in word-final position (e.g.  $bal\bar{\sigma}c$  for  $bal\bar{\sigma}c$ ); word-internal  $\check{c}$  in loanwords is preserved as such (e.g.  $bal\bar{\sigma}c\check{c}ist\bar{a}n$ ). NP  $l\bar{u}\check{c}$  and Taj.  $lu\check{c}$  (note that Taj. lu' represents MP lu' and lu'; Taj. lu' is from MP lu', cf. RZEHAK 1999:51) cannot be genuine either (OIr. lu') lu' gives lu', e.g. lu' represents lu'0. RÜBSCHMANN 1895:225).

On the other hand, Urdu  $lu\check{c}$  "bare, naked" is the only word in sight which comes near to having an etymology, since there are cognates in all branches of NInd. (cf. TURNER 1966:643b) pointing to an albeit unattested OInd. \*lucca- "defective" (the derivation from OInd.  $tucc^hy\acute{a}$ - "empty" assumed by PLATTS 1894:953 is certainly wrong). As long as there is no better explanation, one might assume that Urdu  $lu\check{c}$  has been borrowed into Bal.  $(lu\check{c}(\check{c}))$ , as GILBERSTON 1925:787 assumes, and Persian; Taj.  $lu\check{c}$  could then represent old lul and thus preserve a variant which has otherwise been lost in NP. Through reinterpretation of Taj.  $lu\check{c}$ , i.e. of the lul as  $\bar{u}$ , or maybe rather through some sort of distortion due to taboo, the variant NP  $l\bar{u}\check{c}$  might have come about. Bal.  $lu\check{c}$  might be due to the same phenomenon or have been borrowed from NP as ELFENBEIN 1990/II:89 assumes.

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- \* $b\bar{e}$ - $l\bar{u}\check{c}$ :  $b\bar{e}$  "without" +  $l\bar{u}\check{c}$  "naked";
- \* \*bad- $r\bar{o}\check{c}$  (etymology probably used by some neighbours of the Baloch<sup>96</sup>): bad "bad" +  $r\bar{o}\check{c}$  "day".

The explanations advanced by scholars are the following:

An etymology connecting  $bal\bar{o}\check{c}$  to OInd.  $mlecc^h\acute{a}$ - "ununderstandable speech; barbar" was suggested by several authors, and soon dismissed by others (cf. DAMES 1904:21). Apart from phonological problems, it was stated that  $mlecc^h\acute{a}$ - has never been used for any specific group of people living to the west of the Indus, but denotes "barbarians" in general. 97

A connection of  $bal\bar{o}\check{c}$  with Av.  $bar\bar{o}zah$ - "height" is tempting and has been assumed e.g. by Herzfeld (cf. FRYE 1961:47), who further assumes that the rest of the word goes back to \*\u03c4\u03c4\u00e

A connection with *Gedrosia* (name of an eastern Iranian landscape in Greek sources) appears to have been first suggested by Mockler (via \*bad-rōš, cf. DAMES 1904:21). BAILEY 1973:586f. advances the "purely speculative" idea of a protoform \*uadra-uat-(č)ī- "[land] having water [channels]". This form is supposed to give *Gedrosia / Gadrosia* by application of one set of sound laws on the one hand, and, via \*baòlaut-čī-, *balōč* on the other.

<sup>95</sup>  $b\bar{e}$  may be derived from PIE \* $b^h \check{e}$  (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996a:185f., cf. p. 139) which implies that the word need not be a NP lownwoard.

<sup>96</sup> This popular etymology is also employed as a proverb: "balōč – badrōč". A person X may say that to a person Y if X has inadvertedly done something which harms the interests of Y; the meaning is something like "there is no use in us Baloch" (Lutz Rzehak, personal communication). The saying is parallel to the Turkish expression *Türk iş* (lit.: "Turkish work") which is "used [by Turks] in self-disparagement when something goes wrong" (LEWIS 1967:44).

<sup>97</sup> DAMES himself thinks (1904:21) that the name is equivalent to NP *balōč* which means "cockscombe, crest", and was used as a nickname first. This leaves the question of the etymology open, however.

<sup>98</sup> For the zero grade formation (Bal. burz "high", NP buland, Av. bərəzant-), cf. p. 97, 145.

<sup>99</sup> Examples include bālā "height", bāliš "cushion" (Av. barəziš), cf. HÜBSCHMANN 1895:220f., 260.

Although this solution seems very attractive, several problems are involved here which are liable to render the etymology highly unlikely. First, the form \*uadra-uat(č)ī- is maybe not a good formation: in spite of Bailey's claim of \*uadra- being a "likely" derivative of Av. *vadi*- "water channel", it seems in fact rather implausible that a stem in -*i*- might have a derivative (of the same meaning) with -*ra*- replacing -*i*-. 100

Then, Bailey's assumption of \*uadra- being "replaced by \*gadra-" is faced with the problem that there seems to be no WIr. idiom which would show a change \*ua- > ga-. In Balochi, PIr. \*ua- gives gwa- (cf. II 2.1.3.3.1). Furthermore, there seems to be no parallel for \*dr > \* $\delta$ l > l. \*l. \*

Moreover, Bailey's explanation seems difficult to bring in line with historical data: the term  $bal\bar{o}\check{c}$  is used in the  $\check{S}\bar{a}hn\bar{a}ma$  for a group of people who are hostile to several Persian kings up to the 6th century AD (cf. I 3.2.1). Although it is not clear whether  $bal\bar{o}\check{c}$  is meant in any ethnic or linguistic sense, it would seem that, whatever its meaning at that time, the term  $bal\bar{o}\check{c}$  in the  $\check{S}\bar{a}hn\bar{a}ma$  is the same word as the term  $bal\bar{o}\check{c}$  used today, and the same applies to the term  $bal\bar{a}s$  in Arab sources (see above). On the other hand, the term Gedrosia / Gadrosia is found in Greek sources from Strabon's times. So if any " $bal\bar{o}\check{c}$ " were present in the Caspian region at the time of Xusraw Anūšīrvān and in Kirman some centuries later – a scenario suggested both by the early sources (see above) and by the status of Balochi as a North Western Iranian language –, it is difficult to see how they could have acquired their name from a country which has been called Gedrosia at least for 2000 years. It seems next to impossible that the term  $bal\bar{o}\check{c}$  originated in Balochistan, came to the Caspian region and later went back to Balochistan. Indeed, it would seem that the term Gedrosia cannot be related to the term  $bal\bar{o}\check{c}$ .

The etymology of the term  $bal\bar{o}\check{c}$  thus remains an open question.

<sup>100</sup> A derivative \*uadra- from PIE \*uedor- / \*udn- "water" is not likely either.

<sup>101</sup> It is not certain either whether \*-tī- may yield Bal. -čī. For further etymologies of *Gedrosia* (even less plausible than the ones cited above), cf. FRYE 1961:47.

<sup>102</sup> It is likewise difficult to see how the statement by ELFENBEIN 1989a:350 about the Baloch having "taken their present name from the country in which they finally settled" might be brought in line with the historical data and early sources.

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### 3.3 Balochi as a contact language

The status of Balochi as a minority and unofficial language (cf. I 3.1) means that it has always been used in only certain spheres, some other language(s) being used as a medium of interregional communication, for official, educational, scientific and other purposes, with the result that most speakers of Balochi have – at least to a certain degree – probably always spoken other languages as well. With increasing school attendance and the use of mass media even in the more remote areas of Balochistan, the respective official languages Persian (Iran), Sindhi and Urdu (Pakistan), Dari and Pashto (Afghanistan), Russian and Turkmen (Turkmenistan) have made their influence felt much more than ever before.

The languages which have influenced Balochi are, in the first place, those which have served as a medium for interregional communication and for official purposes. This function has been filled by Persian for the greater part of the history of the Balochi language (which explains the paramount importance of the diverse stages of Persian for Balochi, cf. I 1.2.1), and, for some centuries (cf. I 3.2.1), by Indic languages (Sindhi/Lahnda and probably others, in modern times increasingly Urdu). In certain parts of Afghanistan and (increasingly in recent decades) Pakistan, Pashto has played an important role as well.

<sup>103</sup> This situation amounts to a significant threat for the survival of Balochi, cf. FARRELL 2000.

<sup>104</sup> Cf. RZEHAK 2003. At the moment, the influence of Persian is increasing (at the expense of Dari) in the province of Nimruz, where most Afghan Baloch are living, as Iranian television is available nearly everyhere (whereas Afghanistan television is broadcast for only a few hours per day). The availability of Persian television has significant effects on Afghanistan Balochi (Lutz Rzehak, personal communication). The Afghanistan Balochi dialect as described by NAWATA 1981, BUDDRUSS 1988 and others is still in use among Afghan refugees living in Iran (Behrooz Barjasteh Delforooz, personal communication).

<sup>105</sup> For example, education in most parts of the province of Sindh, including villages around Karachi which are currently becoming suburbs of the city, is in Sindhi. In the more central parts of Karachi, it has been in Urdu for some time, with the result that nowadays the Balochi spoken in Karachi is in the first instance influenced by Urdu, while some 30 years ago, Sindhi would have played the most important role (FARRELL 2003:172).

<sup>106</sup> For the relative status of Pashto and Balochi in Pakistan, especially in Quetta, cf. ARCHER 2003 and TITUS 2003. Whereas traditionally, due to sociological factors described e.g. by BARTH 1964, assimilation of Pashtuns into Balochi tribes (which, in the long run, might lead to the members' use of Balochi rather than Pashto) was a common phenomenon, the immigration of large numbers of refugees from Afghanistan has caused an increase in the relative importance of Pashto, such that Pashto has become the dominant language e.g. in the Quetta bazaar (TITUS 2003:234).

For a considerable time, Balochi has also been in contact with the Dravidian language Brahui (cf. I 2.2) and has influenced the latter in many aspects (see below). Due to the lower prestige of Brahui, <sup>107</sup> its influence on Balochi has not been very strong.

Additional languages with which Balochi has been in contact include Arabic as well as African<sup>108</sup> and European languages (Portuguese and, in recent times, English).

The bilingualism which has probably been the rule rather than the exception for most speakers of Balochi throughout its history has caused the influx of a massive number of loanwords into the Balochi language. As a result, the Balochi vocabulary is composed of layers from diverse sources, with the importance of the layers varying from (sub)dialect to (sub)dialect, but also according to other factors. Some selected fields of the lexicon will be shown in chapter III to give an impression of the variability of the Balochi lexicon and of the sources from which it draws.

Generally speaking, there is an enormous quantity of Persian loanwords from different periods, a considerable number of words from various Modern Indic languages and quite a number from other languages. Contrary to what one might assume, it is not only the Eastern dialects of Balochi which show Indic elements and the Western ones which have incorporated Persian elements; rather all Balochi dialects have been influenced by Persian **and** by Indic languages to a remarkable, albeit somewhat varying, degree.<sup>110</sup>

<sup>107</sup> It is noteworthy that although Brahui was the language of the leading families in the Kalat State, it has been considered inferior to Balochi by the speakers themselves according to all those who have reported on the relationship of Balochi and Brahui (cf. e.g. GEIGER 1889:66, DAMES 1913:658, ELFENBEIN 1982:79) and also according to recent observations in Iranian Balochistan (by Vahe Boyajian in 2000, by myself in January 2005). It goes without saying that the negative opinion of the speakers about their language lessens the chances of its survival. In some parts of Pakistan, the situation might be better today, however, and academic institutions promoting research on Brahui have been established.

<sup>108</sup> One might assume that the languages spoken by people brought to the Makran coast as slaves have also left their traces in Balochi, but the evidence is scarce (FARRELL 2003:169, 183). Note, however, the remark by SULTANA 1996:50<sup>4</sup> that spiritual healers in Makran speak "a mix of Swahili and Balochi".

<sup>109</sup> For methodological problems involved here, cf. I 1.2.1.

<sup>110</sup> Thus, statements to the effect that "the northern [dialect]" (i.e. Eastern Balochi) has been influenced by Sindhi and "the southern [one, i.e. the other dialects] by Persian" (FRYE 1961:47) are not correct, as shall be seen throughout this work.

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The Persian loanwords are unlikely to have been borrowed from the standard variety of the language as spoken in Tehran today (and noted in the Persian dictionaries), but rather from the varieties spoken by those living close to or together with the Baloch. Indeed, it has been noted that Persian words found in Balochi often do not show the standard Persian meanings, but rather the ones they have in Dari or other dialects (SPOONER 1967:53, RZEHAK 2003:264f.).

It is not entirely clear from which language the Ind. words which are found in Balochi have been taken, which is in part due to the imperfect knowledge about the languages spoken in the relevant parts of Pakistan.<sup>111</sup> It has generally been assumed that the older loanwords are from Sindhi/Lahnda<sup>112</sup> and the more recent ones increasingly from Urdu (Rossi 1982:160ff.).<sup>113</sup>

In the present work, an Ind. source language will be defined as the source of a Balochi word if a fitting word exists in that language; this is not meant to exclude the possibility that the word exists in a similar form in some other Ind. language and could therefore (also) have come into Balochi from there. In cases where a fitting word is found in several Ind. languages, priority is given to languages other than Urdu as a possible source since the influence of Urdu is a rather recent phenomenon, i.e. the word will be marked as being of e.g. Sindhi origin if there is a fitting Sindhi word.

Loanwords of sources other than those just described are less obvious, but are also found (for examples, cf. III). Although some Balochi dialects have been in contact with speakers of Pashto for a considerable time, the number of Pashto loanwords in Balochi is rather low. Words from Turkic languages, especially from the spheres of military and tribal organisation, are encountered in Balochi as in other Iranian languages.<sup>114</sup> It goes without saying that the Balochi of Turkmenistan has adopted Turkmen and Russian

<sup>111</sup> Cf. the judgment by EMENEAU (1980:337): "What Indo-Aryan languages (...) are spoken by large numbers in Baluchistan is somehow uncertain."

<sup>112</sup> This has been the general assumption since Bray's study in the *Census of India*. Older sources generally assume Sindhi as source language for most Bal. loanwords of Ind. origin. In most (but not all) cases where these note Sindhi as a source, Elfenbein (1990/II, occasionally also in other more recent works) notes Lahnda instead, perhaps because the geographical distribution of Lahnda makes it a more likely source for the Ind. loanwords in Eastern Balochi. Elfenbein 1982:81, on the other hand, says that "Sindhi" noted in earlier works should probably be replaced by "Siraiki".

<sup>113</sup> In 1929, MORGENSTIERNE (1932a:5) observed that Urdu influence on Balochi is taking the place Sindhi and Lahnda had occupied before.

<sup>114</sup> Some Turk. loanwords have already been recognised by DAMES 1904:13.

words, especially in the field of civil services or phenomena typical for social organisation in the (former) Soviet countries (cf. AXENOV 2003).

Linguistic contact and the borrowing of words is of course by no means only a phenomenon of modern times. It is thus not surprising that there is evidence that Balochi may have borrowed some words from (a predecessor of) Kurdish or a language closely related to it. Since both languages belong to a subgroup of the WIr. languages that is much closer to Persian than other NWIr. languages, it is quite likely that they were in contact for a certain period of their history.

Due to the intense contact of Brahui and Balochi, there are quite a number of Balochi loanwords in Brahui (Morgenstierne 1932:5ff., Rossi 1979). There is even a group of Brahui words of probable Balochi origin which are not found in Balochi itself. Some Brahui words which Morgenstierne 1937, 1948 assumes to have been borrowed from Balochi, although not attested there, have in the meantime been reported as Balochi words. Brahui has also adopted some grammatical structures from Balochi (cf. Emeneau 1964, 1980 and Elfenbein 1982). In spite of the relative insignificance of Brahui for Balochi stressed by many authors, considerable loaning from Brahui into Balochi has been observed at least in the Quetta area (cf. Farrell 2003:183), and Morgenstierne (1932a:9) noticed "a number" of Brahui words in the Balochi of Noshke and Panjgur. There is indeed a certain number of borrowings to be found in the topical vocabulary presented in chapter III.

<sup>115</sup> Geiger was apparently the first to consider the possibility of classifying a Bal. word as a Kurd. loanword: in GEIGER 1891:415, he asks whether *haur* "rain" might not have been borrowed from Kurdish. For examples of possible Kurd. loanwords, cf. II 2.4.1.5.

<sup>116</sup> Cf. IV and KORN 2003.

## II. Historical Phonology

#### 1. General Remarks

The purpose of this chapter is to update the findings about Balochi historical phonology as presented by GEIGER 1890 and 1891, taking into account the works on Balochi etymology and related subjects which have been produced in the meantime, e.g., by MORGENSTIERNE (1932, 1948 etc.), ELFENBEIN (1963, 1985, 1990 etc.) and others. The statements by Geiger will systematically be referred to and reassessed, using material which has come to light from Balochi as well as from other Iranian languages in the past hundred years and discussing implications for the historical phonology of the Western Iranian languages as a whole.

For methodological reasons (cf. I 1.3), this is done in two parts: one (chapter II 2) treating the developments from Old Iranian (OIr.) to Common Balochi (CBal.),<sup>2</sup> the other (chapter II 3) discussing the post-Common Balochi developments leading to the contemporary varieties of Balochi. Sound changes which are well established are illustrated with a few examples only, while those which have not yet been formulated or about which different opinions have been expressed are shown by more examples. The Balochi words are cited with their NP equivalents (alternatively MP, if the NP one is not available or shows some distortion) throughout. It is attempted to give Prth. cognates, too, usually at the first occurrence of a given word (to check where this is, cf. V 2). Cognates from other languages are cited if they are especially noteworthy, but not systematically (cf. I 1.1); the respective OIr. and Old Indic (OInd.) cognates may be found in the index (cf. V 2).

Before entering the subject, a brief account of the Balochi phonemic systems and the pronunciation of loanwords is given.

The latest systematic treatment of Balochi historical phonology is Moškalo 1991:21-40, which is based on GEIGER 1891 for the main part, including the approach of tracing back Bal. phonemes to their OIr. sources and mentioning Middle Iranian (MIr.) material only in rare cases. Moškalo's views will be noted where they differ from those of Geiger and/or those presented here.

<sup>2</sup> The order is thus not the one chosen by Geiger, but the other way round.

## 1.1 Phonemic system

The following pages present the phonemic systems of Common Balochi (cf. I 1.3) as well as of the contemporary dialects as assumed in the present study.

Most authors, beginning with GEIGER (e.g. 1891:403), have described the phonemic systems of the Balochi dialects in such a way that the system of the Eastern dialects (EBal.) is said to include "additional" phonemes as compared with the Western and Southern dialects (SWBal.), and the phonemic system of the latter is declared as the "basic" one and/or as more or less identical with that of Common Balochi. While, from a historical perspective, the SWBal. phonemic system is indeed closer to Common Balochi than that of Eastern Balochi, the SWBal. as well as the EBal. phonemic systems are systems in their own rights with "clearly describable autonomous features" (ROSSI 1979a:179) and should be discussed accordingly. In what follows, the phonemic system of the dialect groups will thus be presented from a synchronic point of view.

#### 1.1.1 Common Balochi

When compared to the phonemic systems of Old Iranian languages, the absence of fricatives from the phonemic system of Common Balochi is striking. Bal. sound laws discussed in II 2.1.2.1 "reduced the original phonemic system of Bal. to a simplicity unknown to any other Ir. language" (MORGENSTIERNE 1948:255).<sup>4</sup>

MORGENSTIERNE (1948:255) was probably the first to distinguish the phonemic system of Common Balochi from those of the contemporary dialects. He was also one of the very few to do so. Cf. e.g. JAHANI 1989:81ff., who posits a set of "original Balochi phonemes" which is also meant to be the phomemic system of the non-Eastern dialects; this set includes the retroflex consonants as well as the fricatives which occur in loanwords only (as peripheral phonemes), and the EBal. phonemic system is treated as "disturb[ing] the indigenous picture". This view has been the one found in most works so far.

<sup>4</sup> MORGENSTIERNE 1948:255 assumes that the loss of fricatives was not due to the contact with Ind. languages, but dates back to an earlier period.

(	Conso	nants	1		Vowels:5							
p	t	č	k		i	ī					и	ū
b	d	Ĭ	g				$\bar{e}$			$\bar{o}$		
	S	š						a	ā			
	z											
m	n											
	r						Г	Diphth	ong	gs:		
$w^6$	l	у	h					ai,	аи			
Phon	Phonemic system of Common Balochi											

# Long (geminated) consonants<sup>7</sup>

Geminated consonants are mainly found in loanwords (cf. II 3.3.1.5). Where geminates occur in genuine words, they go back to a consonant cluster (cf. the table in II 2)<sup>8</sup> or are the result of isometric substitution (cf. II 3.1.3.1). With the exception of y, h and the phonemes of limited occurrence (given in brackets in the following tables), all consonants may occur in geminated form (for examples, cf. II 3.3.1.5).

<sup>5</sup> For the notation of the vowels and diphthongs, cf. I 1.5.2.2. Although the diphthongs may be analysed as biphonematic and thus would not need to be mentioned, they are included here and in the following charts for the reader's information.

Whereas in the present study it is assumed that Common Balochi shows w- from OIr.  $h\mu$ - (cf. also II 2.2.1.5.4), MORGENSTIERNE 1948:255 thinks (based on his interpretation of EBal.  $w^h$ , cf. II 1.1.2.2) that Common Balochi had (biphonematic) \*hw-. The result for the phonemic system of Common Balochi is the same, however, since, with both assumptions, Common Balochi had (only) one w-phoneme.

So far, geminates in Balochi have only been mentioned, but not described, with the exception of short notes in BUDDRUSS 1988:44f. and JAHANI 1989:16. Both works note gemination as a not too common phenomenon, although it is rather frequent in some sources. ROSSI 1979a:225 notes that gemination is one of the points that need further investigation. In metrical texts, geminated consonants are treated like other sorts of consonant clusters.

<sup>8</sup> The changes resulting in geminates are those discussed in II 2.2.1.3, 2.2.2.2, 2.2.2.3, 2.2.3.2 and 2.2.3.3.

Geminated consonants only occur after short vowels (cf. II 3.1.1.1). They are of markedly differing frequency in the individual dialects (frequent in some Western dialects, less frequent elsewhere); the details remain to be studied (cf. II 3.2), but the effect is that all sorts of geminates are optional only when considering the Bal. language as a whole. According to Elfenbein 1991:115, a word-final geminate is always shortened when the next word begins with a consonant.

Gemination will be noted as C(C) throughout, e.g.  $\check{cam}(m)$  "eye", duz(z) "thief". This is meant to indicate that some source(s) show(s) gemination (and, in most cases, others do not). If a word is quoted from a certain cited source, it is given as it appears there, e.g. pakkag (BMC) "ripe".

### **Vowel hiatus**

Adjacent vowels may be separated with the help of h, y or w, e.g.  $\S{\bar{a}}(h)ir$  "poet" (NP-Ar.  $\S{\bar{a}}^cir$ ),  $mah\bar{\iota}$  "May" (Europ.),  $z\bar{a}(h)$ -  $/z\bar{a}y$ - "give birth",  $gr\bar{e}(w)$ - "weep" (cf. II 2.4.3). The choice of the consonants depends in part on the dialect involved (cf. II 3.2.1.1.3, 3.2.2.1, 3.2.3.1, 3.2.4.1).

In other cases, the vowel hiatus remains, and a kind of secondary diphthong seems to develop, e.g. *fāida*, *pāida* "advantage" (NP-Ar. *fā'ida*).<sup>11</sup>

# **1.1.2** Phonemic systems of the dialects<sup>12</sup>

In addition to the phonemes present in the phonemic system of Common Balochi, the phonemic systems of the contemporary Bal. dialects include the retroflex phonemes *t*,

<sup>9</sup> Isolated cases of violation of these rules do occur; all of them show a geminate after long vowel in what is likely to be a loanword: *zīrrag* "cumin seed; ray, beam" (BMC, EAL, SHG; probably borrowed from NP *zīra*, which in turn may be from Indic, HORN 1893:259), *šāddī* "joy" (BMC, borrowed from NP). For additional gemination in some dialects, cf. II 3.2.2.1, 3.2.4.1.

The absence of gemination might in some sources be due to imperfect accuracy in hearing and/or notation, and gemination also differs according to the subdialect or other sort of variant involved.

<sup>10</sup> The use of geminated consonants also seems to depend heavily on the idiolect of the speaker (Lutz Rzehak, personal communication).

<sup>11</sup> Cf. also p. 63-64, 165, 191 for further variants of this word and II 1.2.2 for the treatment of '.

<sup>12</sup> The phonemic systems as assumed here on the whole correspond to those assumed by ROSSI (1979a:207ff.) and JAHANI 1989:79ff. Differences from these two will be noted.

All phonemic analyses that have been proposed for Balochi are treated in detail in ROSSI 1979a.

d and r.<sup>13</sup> Although these phonemes are mainly found in loanwords of Ind. origin, they are rather frequent, there are no distributional limits, and they are never replaced by other sounds. This indicates that they are part of the speakers' phonemic systems, and there is no reason to consider them as peripheral phonemes. Besides its occurrence in loanwords, r develops from r in certain contexts (cf. II 3.1.1.4, 3.1.3.5); the use of d is likewise augmented by a tendency of some dialects to substitute d for d (cf. II 3.1.1.4).

Some authors do not include n in the Balochi phonemic system. However, it occurs not only as an allophone of n in front of d (cf. BUDDRUSS 1988:44), but also in intervocalic position in borrowings from Ind. languages at least in some Bal. variants, including dialects from both the Eastern and the other groups (cf. JAHANI 1989:84, FARRELL 2003:177). As it only occurs in a rather limited number of loanwords and since it seems uncertain that all speakers of a given dialect will pronounce it (other speakers substituting n for it), it is considered a peripheral phoneme here.<sup>14</sup>

Further additions to the phonemic systems include fricatives which have been introduced into the phonemic systems of the dialects to varying degrees: f, x, g are found as peripheral phonemes in the Western and Southern dialects (cf. II 1.1.2.1), while the complete set of f, x,  $\vartheta$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\delta$ , g is present as regular phonemes in the Eastern dialects. q (in NP-Ar. loanwords) is beginning to gain ground in some dialects, too (cf. II 1.2.2), but, even there, it still seems more adequate not to count it as a phoneme.

Nasal vowels are found in most Bal. dialects. They can usually be analysed as allophonic sequences of V + n, but there are dialects where at least some nasal vowels seem to have phonological status (cf. Jahani 1989:80f., Farrell 2003:173f.).<sup>15</sup>

In some dialects,  $\bar{\iota}$  is used in words where other dialects have  $\bar{u}$  (cf. II 3.1.2.3.1, 3.2.1.2, 3.2.2.2). However, since there is a certain degree of interdialectal borrowing

<sup>13</sup> Some authors have doubted the existence of *d* and *r* as two separate phonemes and have regarded them as allophones. However, it seems that these doubts are caused by imperfect notation and errors in the data (cf. RZEHAK 1998:152). For dialects possibly without retroflexes, cf. II 1.1.2.1.

FARRELL 2003:180 assumes that the adoption of n into the phonemic system might be due to its being mentally analysed as a sequence of n (or nasal part of a vowel) + r.

<sup>15</sup> ROSSI 1979a:209f. concludes from the unconvincing reasoning of BARKER/MENGAL 1969:xxxxviff. that nasal vowels are generally not phonemic in SWBal. This statement is liable to modification: it seems that, in this respect, the phonemic system of (some) SBal. and maybe some dialects spoken in Iran differs from that of the remaining non-Eastern dialects, cf. II 3.1.3.3, 3.2.2.3, 3.2.4.3.

everywhere, it seems that there is no phonemic system of a dialect (or other variant) from which  $\bar{u}$  is entirely absent.

# 1.1.2.1 Western and Southern Balochi<sup>16</sup>

Strictly speaking, there is no common phonemic system of the non-Eastern dialects of Balochi, and it might be more adequate to present a different chart for each dialect. On the other hand, the divergences are not so great either, so an overall chart will be given with a discussion of the debatable cases.

	Co	nsona	nts:					Vowe	ls:		
p	t	ţ	č	k		i ī				и	ū
b	d	ф	Ĭ	g			$\bar{e}$		$\bar{o}$		
(f)	S		š	(x)				$a \bar{a}$			
	z		ž	$(\dot{g})$							
m	n	$(\dot{n})$									
	r	ŗ					D	iphtho	ngs:		
w	l		y	h				ai, ai	и		
Phonemic system of Southern and Western Balochi											

 $\check{z}$  only occurs in loanwords and is rather rare in SWBal. (comparable to its status in NP). Its distribution is limited, but, as there are minimal pairs, it constitutes a phoneme of its own. h is absent from the WBal. dialect of Turkmenistan and weak in the remaining Raxšānī dialects (cf. II 3.2.3.1).

<sup>16</sup> Rossi 1979a:169ff. cites the phonemic system (or, rather, inventory of phones, in the case of earlier authors) of SWBal. as conceived by the following previous authors: Geiger 1901, Grierson 1921, Morgenstierne 1948, Sokolova 1953: Balochi of Turkmenistan, Spooner 1967: Balochi of Iran, Barker/Mengal 1969: Western Balochi of Pakistan, Ramanujan/Masica 1969: data from Frolova 1960, Edel'Man 1975.

ELFENBEIN's assumption of a common phonemic system for all dialects (1966:4f.) is not adequate (see below, cf. also ROSSI 1979a:189).

The phonemic status of the individual phonemes is discussed in detail in Rossi 1979a:207ff. For additional discussion of w, cf. II 2.2.1.5.4.

There is a "very limited number" of dialects in Iran without retroflex consonants (FARRELL 2003:177). Since all other Balochi dialects have them, it seems that these dialects have lost the retroflex consonants (presumably under the influence of NP).

x, g and f are peripheral phonemes in that they only occur in loanwords, mainly of NP or Arabic origin. Another possible source is Eastern Balochi where these sounds have phonemic status (cf. II 1.1.2.2). The tendency to substitute the corresponding stops is rather strong (cf. II 1.2.2), and they are absent from the repertoires of many speakers, so they are given in brackets here.<sup>17</sup>

In at least some SBal. dialects, nasal vowels exist as separate phonemes (cf. II 3.2.2.3).

## 1.1.2.2 Eastern Balochi<sup>18</sup>

The main differences which set Eastern Balochi apart from the other dialects have been treated in I 3.1.1 and will be dealt with in detail in II 3.2.1.

Since MORGENSTIERNE 1948:256, it has been clear that the EBal. fricatives have phonemic status. They started out as allophones of the corresponding stops in postvocalic position; with the adoption of loanwords containing fricatives not only in post-vocalic position, the fricatives ceased to be a conditioned phenomenon. When the fricativisation rule did not operate any longer, postvocalic stops in new loanwords have created a new phonemic opposition.

<sup>17</sup> JAHANI 1989:81 is the only author to note q as an additional "borrowed phoneme", though noting that it is very rare and only occasionally found as an "elegant phoneme", usually being replaced by k (cf. II 1.2.2). It is thus not considered necessary here to establish it as a separate phoneme.

For the data available for Eastern Balochi, cf. I 1.4. Charts of the phonemic system as assumed by previous authors are given by Rossi 1979a:167ff. These include DAMES 1891, GRIERSON 1921, GILBERTSON 1925, MORGENSTIERNE 1948, BARKER/MENGAL 1969, EDEL'MAN 1975.

	Consonants:							•	Vowels:			
$p^{(h)}$	<i>t</i> <sup>(h)</sup>		$\underline{t}^{(h)}$	$\check{c}^{\scriptscriptstyle(h)}$	$k^{(h)}$		i ī				и	ū
b	d		<u>,</u>	Ĭ	g			$ar{e}$	ā	<u></u>		
f	$\vartheta$	S		š	x				$a$ $\bar{a}$			
β	$\delta$	z		$\check{z}^{19}$	$\dot{g}$							
m	n		$(\dot{u})$					Di	phthongs:			
$w^{(h)}$	l	r	ŗ	у	h				ai, au			
Phone	Phonemic system of Eastern Balochi											

It is not entirely clear whether the same can be said of aspirated voiceless stops (including  $\check{c}$ ) as JAHANI 1989:83 assumes.<sup>20</sup> The examples of unaspirated voiceless stops seem to be Ind. loanwords exclusively (Rossi 1979a:213). In this work, it will thus be assumed that there is no phonemic opposition of aspirated and unaspirated stops in Eastern Balochi.<sup>21</sup> The marking of the aspiration is therefore superfluous from a phonological point of view. Since aspiration of word-initial voiceless stops has been observed in other dialects as well (cf. p. 40, 242, 251), it does not distinguish Eastern Balochi very much from the remaining dialects either. The reason it is noted here nevertheless is that traditionally, EBal. words have been cited this way (not only in the earlier sources, but also e.g. in ABG).

Note that the set of palatals, which, on a synchronic level, corresponds to the set as seen in the other dialects, is something different from a diachronic point of view: CBal. č, j in postvocalic position are represented by EBal. š, ž respectively. Due to that sound change, the status of ž within the phonemic system is much stronger than in the remaining dialects. č, j have been reintroduced in Eastern Balochi in postvocalic position via borrowings from other languages and dialects.

<sup>20</sup> The main authors who have investigated this question are BARKER/MENGAL 1969 (several hints at various places, cf. Rossi 1979a:212) and EDEL'MAN 1975:68ff. Rossi 1979a:211ff. declines to accept these authors' arguments about the aspirated voiceless stops being separate phonemes.

<sup>21</sup> The fact that aspiration has not always been noted with due accuracy makes it also probable that some perceived oppositions between aspirated and unaspirated stops are due to misinterpretation by the authors of the first-hand sources.

Note also that aspiration in the case of word-initial stop followed by a resonant seems to be even less marked than when followed by a vowel (there is apparently no example of kR-, cf. II 3.2.1.1.1), so that unaspirated stops have probably always been present to some degree in Eastern Balochi.

Several authors have noted that in a number of loanwords, aspirated voiced stops also occur, viz.  $b^h$ ,  $d^h$ ,  $d^h$ ,  $g^h$  and the affricate  $j^h$ . However, minimal pairs have not yet been found, so it does not seem necessary to ascribe a phonemic status to them.<sup>22</sup>

The number of labial fricative / glide phonemes in Eastern Balochi is not entirely clear. The maximum solution is three phonemes: w with a word-initial allophone  $w^{h23}$  corresponding to CBal. w,  $^{24}$   $\beta^{25}$  as product of postvocalic CBal. b (cf. II 3.2.1.1.1) and v in loanwords e.g. from Ind. languages. This approach is indeed advocated by GILBERTSON 1923:7. Most other authors do not assume three phonemes, though. Two phonemes are assumed by e.g. GEIGER (1891:433 etc.), DAMES (1891:1ff.), GRIERSON (1921:337ff.), ROSSI (1979a:211ff.), these being w from CBal. w (with or without word-initial allophone  $w^h$ ) and  $\beta$  from postvocalic b (and possibly also in word-initial position in loanwords with v-). It does not seem impossible, however, that some authors who have assumed two phonemes have done so for historical reasons  $^{26}$  or systematic ones (thus apparently ROSSI 1979a:211).  $^{27}$  Some authors assume only one phoneme w, e.g.

<sup>22</sup> Note that there is no example of an aspirated voiced stop in ABG, but it is possible that the presence or absence of aspiration is due to inaccuracy of notation. ROSSI 1979a:211 contents himself in stating that some authors have assumed the existence of aspirated voiced stops as phonemes, without further discussion of the matter. JAHANI 1989:83 states that the question has to remain open until further investigation about Eastern Balochi is made. GEIGER 1901:235 notes the occurrence of aspirate voiced stops in Ind. loanwords (only), independent of the dialect.

<sup>23</sup> The reason for which ROSSI 1979a:211 concludes, from MORGENSTIERNE's (1948:255<sup>4</sup>) mentioning of  $w^h$ , that Morgenstierne intends it to be a phoneme separate from w is not entirely clear to me.

CBal. w is the product of OIr. -\(\mu\)- and \(h\mu\)- (cf. II 2.2.1.5.4), while OIr. \(\mu\)- results in Bal. \(g(w)\)- (cf. II 2.1.3.3.1). The observation by GRIERSON 1921:339 and MORGENSTIERNE 1948:255\(^4\) that EBal. \(w^h\)- comes from OIr. \(h\mu\)- is correct (cf. II 2.2.1.5.4), but the same is true for SWBal. \(w\)-. If the aspiration (probably rather a devoicing, cf. GRIERSON 1921:339) does preserve something old, it must have been lost in Western Balochi. On the synchronic level, however, the distribution seems to be completely parallel to that of the voiceless stops. Moškalo 1991:29 assumes that the outcome of OIr. \(h\mu\)- as \(v\)- is not limited to the EBal. dialects while word-internally, there is a phoneme \(w\) (< OIr. \(\mu\)); the note about a "tendency of substitution of \(w\) by \(v\)" (Moškalo 1991:29f.) seems to be taken from GILBERTSON 1923:7 (see below). In the non-Eastern dialects, however, there seems to be no evidence suggesting that the Bal. product of OIr. \(h\mu\)- is different from word-internal \(w\). Moreover, a difference in pronunciation would not necessarily constitute a phonemic opposition.

<sup>25</sup> The notation  $\beta$  is chosen here for systematic reasons, without implications as to its pronunciation intended. Some other authors have used  $\nu$ ; Geiger uses w for what is  $\beta$  here and  $\nu$  for w.

Note that GEIGER 1891:433 says that he "corrected" some inconsistencies in the material by Dames and others by taking into account the etymology of the words in question.

ROSSI does not explicitly discuss the phonemic status of  $\beta$  (his  $\nu$ ), but, from his statements about  $w^{(h)}$  (1979a:213, see above), one might conclude that  $\beta$  is meant to be a separate phoneme.

BARKER/MENGAL 1969/II:1ff., EDEL'MAN 1975:74.<sup>28</sup> The question cannot be decided without new relevant EBal. material. For the purposes of the present work and in order not to lose potentially relevant information, the distinction w (with word-initial allophone  $w^h$ ) vs.  $\beta$  (< CBal. postvocalic b) is made throughout.

Although nasal vowels are widespread in Eastern Balochi (cf. II 3.2.1.3), there is no evidence that they have attained phonemic status.

# 1.2 Pronunciation of loanwords<sup>29</sup>

## 1.2.1 Arabic sounds<sup>30</sup>

The typical Arabic sounds are treated the same way as in NP (cf. also I 1.5.2.3), i.e.

- *t* is rendered as *t*,
- s, s are rendered as s,
- $\underline{z}$ ,  $\dot{z}$ , z as z,
- *h* as *h*.

As to the orthography of Arabic words, Balochi sources vary quite a bit. The two main approaches are the following: some authors use the NP-Ar. orthography, thereby demonstrating learnedness, and/or the desire to make recognition of (Arabo-)Persian and Urdu words possible (thus e.g. ABG where even the transcription tends to correspond to the Arabic orthography). Others prefer to indicate the actual Balochi pronunciation, one motive being the strengthening of a "pure" Balochi language (thus SHG where none of the phonemes given in brackets in II 1.1.2.1 occurs either). Mixed strategies are also found. In BMC (where the words are ordered by their transcription), both variants

Note that there is no difference to be found in ABG, who notes both cases as v, that there are "mistakes" in DAMES' DTB, who has e.g.  $bar\bar{a}war$  where his system of notation (see above) would require  $bar\bar{a}var$  (i.e.  $bar\bar{a}\beta ar$  in the notation used here), and that GILBERTSON 1923:7 says that  $\beta$  may take the place of w. Moreover, both w and  $\beta$  are written with the same character in the Arabic orthography (i.e.  $_{9}$ ), which might lead to errors in the sources and further blur the picture.

<sup>29</sup> For phenomena occurring specifically in loanwords (e.g. devoicing of final consonants), cf. II 3.3.

<sup>30</sup> For q and g, cf. II 1.2.2.

<sup>31</sup> The question how to deal with the "Arabic letters" is much debated among the Baloch (cf. JAHANI 1989:150ff.). The problem is rendered even more difficult by the use of some of these letters for writing certain phonemes of the Eastern Balochi dialects (cf. II 3.2.1.1, 3.3.2.3).

of orthography are given, while the transcription reflects the pronunciation.<sup>32</sup>

Arabic (e) disappears without trace in word-initial position, e.g. 33

- $\bar{a}kibat$  "future" (NP-Ar.  $\bar{a}qibat$ ),  $ad\bar{a}lat(t)^{34}$  "court" (NP-Ar.  $\bar{c}id\bar{a}lat$  "justice"), izzat "honour" (NP-Ar.  $\bar{c}izzat$ ), uzr "excuse" (NP-Ar.  $\bar{c}uzr$ ), akl (cf. also p. 207, 265, 267) "intelligence" (NP-Ar.  $\bar{c}aql$ ), aib (for variants, cf. p. 228, 278) "fault" (NP-Ar.  $\bar{c}aib$ ). In post-vocalic position, it lengthens the preceding vowel:
- $b\bar{a}d$  (FBB, EAL) "later" (NP-Ar.  $ba^cd$ ),  $t\bar{a}r\bar{\iota}p$  (FARRELL 2003:182) "praise" (NP-Ar.  $ta^cr\bar{\iota}f$ ),  $t\bar{a}m$  "taste" (NP-Ar.  $ta^cm$ ),  $d\bar{a}w\bar{a}$  "lawsuit" (NP-Ar.  $da^cw\bar{a}$ ).

The hiatus which results from the loss of intervocalic  $^c$  may be filled by a vowel-separating consonant,  $^{36}$  e.g.  $s\bar{a}hat$ , sahat "hour, time" (NP-Ar.  $s\bar{a}^cat$ ).

Word-final <sup>c</sup> seems to be lost, cf. EAL *tama* "desire" (NP-Ar. *tama*). ABG's *tamā* "greed" might reflect the lengthening of word-final -a which is common in this source (cf. II 3.1.2.2.2).

Arabic '() is lost. The loss may result in a secondary diphthong, e.g.  $p\bar{a}ida$ ,  $f\bar{a}ida$  "advantage" (NP-Ar.  $f\bar{a}'ida$ ). 37

A number of sources do not note the Arabic orthography, among them the works by Gilbertson (GCD), Elfenbein (EVM, EAL etc.) and Farrell (FBB, FARRELL 2003). The same applies to Afghanistan Balochi as treated by NAWATA 1981 and BUDDRUSS 1988. In Turkmenistan, Balochi has been written in Cyrillic and Roman script (cf. AXENOV 2000), if at all (cf. RZEHAK 1998:152), so the question of Arabic orthography does not arise.

<sup>33</sup> This corresponds exactly to the situation in NP where <sup>c</sup> is noted in the orthography, but not pronounced as such.

<sup>34</sup> This is the variant in BMC; ABG has the NP-Ar. orthography and the transcription 'adālat. For the system of citing Balochi words adopted in the present work, cf. I 1.5; for adālat(t), cf. also p. 285.

<sup>35</sup> Since the same strategy exists in Urdu/Hindi, it is possible that at least some of these words have been borrowed from there:  $b\bar{a}d$ ,  $t\bar{a}r\bar{t}p^h$  and  $d\bar{a}w\bar{a}$  are even found in BESKROVNIJ 1953. However, spoken CNP shows the same phenomenon, so the influence may (also) come from this side.

The use and choice of the vowel-separating consonant(s) depends on the dialect in question (cf. II 2.4.3, 3.2.1.1.3, 3.2.2.1, 3.2.3.1, 3.2.4.1).

<sup>37</sup> For further variants, cf. p. 165, 191.

#### 1.2.2 Persian sounds

The fricatives of loanwords are usually replaced in SWBal. by sounds belonging to the basic phonemic system, usually by the corresponding stops (cf. SPOONER 1967:58, BARKER/MENGAL 1969/I:xxxff., BUDDRUSS 1988:44, FARRELL 2003:176f., 179). This chiefly affects f, x, q, g of Persian (and Perso-Arabic) loanwords, but also fricatives of other languages.

Speakers of Balochi with higher education do use the original pronunciation. Furthermore, the tendency of substitution seems to be stronger in the Southern dialects than in the Western ones. In Iran, and some regions close to its border, due to the growing influence of mass media and the educational system of the respective states, the pronunciation of f, x, q, g in loanwords has become more usual in recent times, <sup>39</sup> so that doublets of the same word occur, one with the Persian pronunciation, one with the adapted one (examples below). Religious terms and those used in particularly formal styles are especially liable to appear in the "learned" pronunciation.

f is mostly replaced by p, 40 e.g.

• pāida "advantage" (NP-Ar. fāida, cf. p. 63), pakīr "beggar" (NP-Ar. faqīr).

 $\dot{g}$  is replaced by g in most cases:<sup>41</sup>

- $gar\bar{t}b^{42}$  "poor" (NP-Ar.  $\dot{g}ar\bar{t}b$ ), galat (cf. p. 282) "wrong" (NP-Ar.  $\dot{g}alat$  "mistake"), gam(m) (EAL)<sup>43</sup> "grief" (NP-Ar.  $\dot{g}am(m)$ );
- augān "Afghan" (NP afġān, cf. p. 277).

<sup>38</sup> Statements of this sort are to be found in most works treating Balochi (e.g. FBB 12, JAHANI 1989:81), while the remaining details have not so far been treated systematically.

<sup>39</sup> MAHMOODZAHI 2003:151 observes that nowadays Balochi children in Iran use the "Persian" sounds in Persian words whereas one generation ago children would substitute "Balochi" sounds for them.

<sup>40</sup> The same applies to f in European loanwords, e.g. pilm "film".

<sup>41</sup> Note, however, that in Afghanistan Balochi, the pronunciation *g* seems to be rather common (BUDDRUSS 1988:44).

<sup>42</sup> DTB and GCD have garīb, EAL has both variants. For a further variant, cf. p. 278.

<sup>43</sup> In addition to gam, BMC, DTB and EAL have gam, also as the first member of compounds. EAL also has compounds with  $gam^{\circ}$ , FBB has  $gamg\bar{\imath}n$  "sad" (from NP  $gam-g\bar{\imath}n$ ).

q in Arabic loanwords is as a rule replaced by k, e.g. in

- kismat "destiny" (NP-Ar. qismat), kulp (cf. p. 265) "(door-)lock" (NP-Ar. qufl);
- $\bar{a}$ kubat (BMC, cf. p. 286),  $\bar{a}$ kibat "future" (NP-Ar.  $\bar{a}$ qibat, cf. p. 63),  $pak\bar{\imath}r$  "beggar" (see above).

Sometimes we find x, probably reflecting some NP pronunciation variety:<sup>44</sup>

•  $\bar{a}xibat$  (EAL),  $\bar{a}x\bar{o}bat$  (BMC, p. 193, 201) "future" (see above), arax (EVM) "sweat" (NP-Ar.  $^caraq$ ).

If a word with q is taken over from Standard New Persian where q and g fall together, the result in Balochi may likewise be g or g:

- alġa-gōš (EVM) "earring" (NP-Ar. halqa "ring"),
- $\bar{a} \dot{s} i \dot{g}$ ,  $\bar{a} \dot{s} i \dot{x}$  (both EVM),  $\bar{a} \dot{s} i \dot{k}^{45}$  "lover" (NP-Ar.  $\bar{a} \dot{s} i \dot{q}$ ),
- $\bar{a}g\bar{a}$  "lord" (NP-Turk.  $\bar{a}q\bar{a}$ ).

In the case of NP-Ar. x, several strategies are met with.

In a minority of cases, it is pronounced x, especially in terms from the religious sphere:

• xairāt (EVM), xērāt (FBB) "alms, offer" (NP-Ar. xairāt), xidmat (ABG, DTB) "service" (NP-Ar. xidmat).

The most common substitution is that by *h*:

• *hālīg* "empty" (NP-Ar. *xālī*), *habar* "news, word, matter" (NP-Ar. *xabar*), <sup>46</sup> *hatar* "danger" (NP-Ar. *xaṭar*), *halās* "finished" (NP-Ar. *xalāṣ*), *halk* "village, people" (NP-Ar. *xalq*), *hairāt* "alms" (see above), *hidmat* "service" (see above).

Usually, these words are written using the normal letter for h ( $\mathfrak{o}$ ). Some writers, however, choose to use  $\mathfrak{T}$  (a letter which is – apart from the diacritical mark – identical in shape to that for x:  $\dot{\mathfrak{T}}$ ) to indicate their knowledge that this word is originally a foreign word with  $x^{47}$ , e.g.

• مبر or حبر (orthography meaning: this word is *xabar* originally) *habar*, متر / متر / متر / متر / متر

As h disappears in some WBal. dialects (see below), x in a loanword may appear as zero (cf. e.g. BUDDRUSS 1988:44):

• abar "news etc.", alās "finished", alk "village, people".

<sup>44</sup> In the case of Bal. *waxt*, *wakt* "time" (cf. also p. 281), the pronunciation of NP-Ar. *waqt* as *waxt* is even common in NP (and the standard variant in Pashto) as well.

<sup>45</sup> ABG and GCD have the NP-Ar. form <sup>c</sup>āšiq.

<sup>46</sup> ABG and EVM have the NP variant *xabar* in *xabar kan-* "say" and *xabar-dār* "take care!", respectively.

<sup>47</sup> Carina Jahani (personal communication).

In other cases (maybe especially in the Southern dialects or at least some of these), x is replaced by k (cf. FARRELL 2003:176):<sup>48</sup>

•  $k\bar{a}m\bar{o}s$  (FBB) "quiet" (NP  $x\bar{a}m\bar{o}s$ , cf. p. 157), kat (FBB) "letter" (NP-Ar. xat "line"). 49

It is thus not unusual to find the same loanword in multiple forms, e.g.

- $k(a)r\bar{a}b$ ,  $(h)ar\bar{a}b$  (cf. also p. 283) "bad" (NP-Ar.  $xar\bar{a}b$  "out of order");
- kudā (FBB), xudā (EVM, FBB), hudā "God" (NP xudā);
- $k\bar{\imath}al$  (FBB),  $xay\bar{\imath}al$  (ABG,<sup>50</sup> EVM),  $hay\bar{\imath}al$  "thought, opinion" (NP-Ar.  $xay\bar{\imath}al$ ,  $xiy\bar{\imath}al$  "imagination, idea");
- *kēriat, (h)ēriat* (both FARRELL 2003:176), *xairiat* (FBB) "healthy" (NP-Ar. *xairiyat* "welfare").

#### 1.2.3 Indic sounds

The retroflex consonants of Ind. loanwords are pronounced as such in Balochi, including n (cf. II 1.1.2). In some loanwords with dentals, retroflex consonants are even secondarily introduced (cf. II 3.1.1.4, 3.3.1.7.3).

Sindhi  $\underline{d}$  is replaced by  $\underline{d}$  or d (cf. II 3.1.1.4). The remaining implosive consonants are replaced by corresponding non-implosive consonants.

Although v in loanwords is as a rule replaced by w, some cases of word-initial v- show g- or b- when taken over into Balochi (cf. II 3.3.1.7.1).

# 1.2.4 European sounds<sup>51</sup>

Fricatives occurring in European loanwords are treated the same way as those in NP words (cf. II 1.2.2).

<sup>48</sup> The use of *k* in loanwords with *x* might have been motivated by the observation that Balochi has *k* in some cases where NP has *x* (both the result of OIr. *x*, cf. II 2.1.2.1), e.g. Bal. *kand*- "to laugh" vs. NP *xand*-. It is noteworthy that there is no example of the substitution of *k* for *x* in older sources. *wakšī* (ABG, EAL, for the EBal. variant *waškī*, cf. p. 177) "wild" for NP-Ar. *waḥšī* probably reflects the irregular pronunciation *waxšī* heard in some NP variants.

<sup>49</sup> FBB also has the variant xat, ABG has the NP-Ar. orthography xat, EAL has xat(t).

<sup>50</sup> ABG notes the meaning "care, caution".

<sup>51</sup> Cf. also FARRELL 2003:179f.

Dentals of European loanwords are replaced by retroflex consonants as in Modern Ind. languages:

- *tikaṭṭ* (BMC, EAL) "ticket" (cf. also p. 271), *kabāṭ* (FBB, SHG, FARRELL 2003:180) "cupboard", <sup>52</sup> *futbāl* (FBB), *putbāl* (BMC) "football";
- dāktar (FARRELL 2003:178) "doctor", dīs (FARRELL 2003:180) "(satellite) dish".

#### 1.3 Accent

The Balochi accent remains an issue to be investigated. Most studies on Balochi and collections of Balochi texts have neglected it altogether. From those works which have treated it, it seems that the accentuation of words differs considerably among the dialects. The available information is the following:

For the Western Balochi dialect of Turkmenistan and Afghanistan, a system of accentuation has been noted which is similar to the New Persian one.

<sup>52</sup> On devoicing of word-final consonants in loanwords, cf. II 3.3.1.4.

Moškalo gives only examples of polysyllabic noun stems. RASTORGUEVA 1966:328f. has only monosyllabic ones, with accented endings. It is thus possible that the rule observed by BUDDRUSS 1988:46 for Afghanistan Balochi (see below) applies here, too.

The rules of accentuation given by BUDDRUSS 1988:45ff. for Afghanistan Balochi differ from the Turkmenistan system<sup>54</sup> in that case endings added to monosyllabic nouns always bear the accent (on their first syllable if the ending has more than one syllable),<sup>55</sup> whereas polysyllabic nouns are always accented on the last syllable of the stem, all case endings being enclitic. Inflected forms of the interrogative pronoun  $\check{c}\bar{e}$  "what" are accented on the first syllable, however. Verbal forms with the prefix b(i)-likewise have the accent on the first syllable<sup>56</sup> while the prohibitive prefix ma- is proclitic, e.g. ma- $\check{a}yay$  "you should not come!". Verbs in the present tense, usually accented on the ending, are also found with accent on the stem if this is a heavy syllable.

The accentuation in the Southern Balochi dialect of Karachi differs markedly from this system in that the place of the accent depends on the length of the syllables. From a preliminary collection of material by Tim Farrell, one may deduce the following rules:

A heavy syllable (—) is one which contains a long vowel or diphthong or a short vowel followed by more than one consonant. The nasal element of nasal vowels is not taken into account. A word-final long vowel and a word-final short vowel followed by one consonant count as light syllables ( $\cup$ ).

The domain of the accent is the last three syllables of a word. The accent is on the first syllable, counting from the end of the word, which is heavy. This means that the accent is on the last syllable of a word if this syllable is heavy (or if the word is monosyllabic):  $(n \cdot x)'$ —. If the last syllable is light, the accent is on the last but one syllable provided that it is heavy (or the first syllable of the word)  $(n \cdot x)'$ — $\cup$ . If the two last syllables are light, the accent is on the last but two (antepenultimate) syllable, be it heavy or light:  $(n \cdot x)'x \cup \cup$ .

A secondary stress may fall on the initial syllable of longer words if the primary accent is not on the second syllable.

<sup>54</sup> Given the otherwise far-reaching similarity of Turkmenistan and Afghanistan Balochi, one might wonder whether some of the differences in the set of rules are due to incomplete data.

<sup>55</sup> The possible exceptions to this rule noted by BUDDRUSS 1988:46 are likely to be due to errors of some sort, since the relevant words were treated like all other monosyllabic nouns when checked again with Afghanistan Baloch by Lutz Rzehak (personal information).

This implies that when the vowelless allomorph of b(i)- is used, the first syllable of the stem is accented, e.g.  $agar\ b$ -'raway" if you go" vs. 'bi- $\bar{a}r$  "bring!" (BUDDRUSS 1988:59).

Examples (all Tim Farrell, personal communication):

- ra'wān "going", wa'ssīg "mother-in-law", pāp'lēt "pomfret", kap'tōk "new mother";
- 'nākō "uncle", 'piššī "cat", 'rawā "I go", 'abar "news", 'jinik "girl";
- $k\bar{o}'r\bar{a}sag$  "great grandchild",  $r\bar{o}z'g\bar{a}r\bar{\iota}$  "employment",  $\check{s}u'luppag$  "to slurp";
- 'pīsita "rotten (perf. stem)", pī sitagē "rotten" (adj.)";
- 'kušta'gant-ē "they have killed them", 'kuštagi'tant-ē "they had killed them". 57

Some morphologically conditioned rules overide these principles: the causative suffix  $-\bar{e}n$ - is always accented, e.g.  $w\bar{a}'p\bar{e}n\bar{t}t$ - $\bar{e}$  "he/she puts them to sleep". The prefixes b(i)- and ma- are proclitic: bi-'lik "write!", ma-' $kap\bar{\iota}$  "he/she should not fall". An exception to this is the forms from war- "eat" which accent the prefix (probably for pragmatic reasons): 'bi- $war\bar{a}$  "they should eat", 'ma- $war\bar{a}$  "they should not eat".

The data on "intonation" given by Barker/Mengal seem to suggest that the Pakistani Raxšānī dialect they describe goes with the system of Karachi Balochi to a large extent:

- $\bar{e} \ ku'\check{c}akk-\bar{e}$  "this [is] a dog",  $\bar{e} \ \check{c}i'r\bar{a}g-\bar{e}$  "this [is] a lamp" vs.
- $\bar{e}$  'kalam- $\bar{e}$ "this [is] a pen" (cf. BARKER/MENGAL 1969/I:2, 34).<sup>58</sup>

However, imperatives are always accented on the prefix (BARKER/MENGAL 1969/I:179ff.) as in other WBal. dialects (see above).

Information on the accent in the Eastern dialects is even harder to find than for the others. The description by GILBERTSON 1925/II:797, although set in categories different from those used here, seems to indicate rules very much like (if not identical with) those observed for Karachi Balochi, i.e. the last heavy syllable of a word being accented. Some counter-examples occur, though. If these are not to be ascribed to the author being guided by an imperfect understanding of the rules,<sup>59</sup> they might indicate that n + C (or at least word-final nj, nd) does not cause the syllable to be heavy in Eastern Balochi ('birinj "rice", 'phulkand "sugar" vs. Karachi Balochi 'kuštagi'tant- $\bar{e}$ ) and that an additional accent is on the last syllable of a three-syllable word if the first

<sup>57</sup>  $-\bar{e}$  is the pronominal suffix of the 3pl. The accent would be on the same place if the pronoun was counted as the last syllable of the word, but examples like 'gud- $\bar{e}$  "their clothes" (FARRELL 1995:234) show that the pronominal suffixes are enclitic in Karachi Balochi as in the other dialects.

<sup>58</sup> Here,  $-\bar{e}$  is the enclitic indefinite article.

<sup>59</sup> Note that Gilbertson's example 'phiriš'taġ "angel" (adduced to illustrate the rule that the first and last syllable are accented in words with "3 short vowels") is at variance with his rule that it is closed syllables which are accented.

one is accented ('saka'tar "partridge", 'aška'naġ "to hear"). Gilbertson also observes that phrases like compound verbs and preposition + noun are treated as a unit as far as the accent is concerned, e.g. 'dar-bu'raɣ "to save", 'pʰa wa'ðā "among themselves".

The accentuation rules observed in Southern and Eastern Balochi agree with those observed for Urdu (SPIES 1945:11ff.): Urdu words of Indic origin<sup>61</sup> have the accent on the last of the last three syllables which is heavy (*natura* or *positione*) and on the last but two syllable if all three are short, word-final long vowels counting as a light syllable.<sup>62</sup> Some nominal endings are enclitic.

The evidence suggests that the accentuation of the Balochi dialects has been influenced very much by (or even taken from) the respective neighbouring languages.<sup>63</sup> As the accentuation systems are based on entirely different principles, it does not seem possible at present to determine the accentuation of Common Balochi.

With this additional rule, apart from  $p^h iri \dot{s}' tag$  (cf. the preceding footnote), the only examples which do not fit into the rules are  $si' d^h \bar{a}$  "straight" (a loanword from Sindhi) and  $\dot{c} u k^h \dot{c} \bar{o} r \bar{t}$  "children" which is a compound from  $\dot{c} u k$  "child, boy" and Urdu  $\dot{c}^h \bar{o} r \bar{t}$  "girl" (thus "boys and girls").

<sup>61</sup> There are some specific rules for the accentuation of Persian and Arabic loanwords.

<sup>62</sup> The note in SPIES 1945:12 indicates that in contrast to Karachi Balochi, final long nasal vowels count as a heavy syllable.

One may even wonder if the accent system of Urdu and Karachi Balochi has been influenced by Arabic since Standard Arabic has the same system (KRAHL/REUSCHEL 1990:75f.).

### 2. Old Iranian > Common Balochi

In the following pages, the development of the Old Iranian phonemes to Common Balochi (cf. I 1.3) will be discussed in detail. For practical purposes, the term "Old Iranian" is used in a somewhat abstract sense and denotes an OIr. variety which does neither shows the specific developments seen in Old Persian<sup>1</sup> nor the subphonematic phenomena characteristic for Avestan. As Balochi is a member of the group of Western Iranian languages, it shares the MP and Prth. loss of final syllables. In contrast to all other Western Iranian languages (Middle and Modern), however, most phonemic oppositions seen in Old Iranian are preserved in Balochi (for further discussion, cf. II 2.1.1.1 and IV).

The development of sound classes from PIE to Common Balochi may be tabulated as follows:

PIE	Old Iranian	Common Balochi	details in chapter		
Т	Т	Т	II 2.1.1		
D	D	D	II 2.1.1		
T/_C	Θ	Т	II 2.1.2.1		
R	R	R	II 2.1.3		
E <u>i</u> E <u>u</u>	ai au	$ar{e}$ $ar{o}$	II 2.3.3		
i, u ī, ū (< UH etc.)	i, u ī, ū	i, u ī, ū	II 2.3.1.2 II 2.3.1.3		
E Ē (< EH etc.)	a ā	а ā	II 2.3.1.2 II 2.3.1.3		
Development of sound classes from PIE to Common Balochi					

The table on the following pages summarises the development of the individual sounds and the chapters where these are discussed.

It is assumed here (following e.g. SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996:649) that in Old Iranian times, the Iranian languages (only two of which are attested) formed a continuum of dialects, only the peripheral varieties (Old Persian and the Saka languages) displaying a set of very distinctive features, so that a distinction of Western and Eastern Iranian is not useful for that period.

PIE	Old Iranian	Common Balochi	details in chapter				
stops and clusters with stops							
*p	p	p	II 2.1.1.1				
*p/_C	f	p	II 2.1.2.1				
*-pr-	-fr-	-hr-	II 2.2.1.4.2				
*pro-	#fra-	ša-	II 2.2.1.4.1				
	#fš-	š-	II 2.2.1.2				
*pŭ	fu	hụ ?	II 2.2.1.5.1				
*t	t	t	II 2.1.1.1				
*t+t, *d+t, *st	st	st	II 2.1.2.3				
*t/_C	$\vartheta$	t	II 2.1.2.1				
*tr	Av. $\vartheta r$ , OP $\varphi$	s(s)	II 2.1.2.4				
*tu̯	$\vartheta \mu$	h ?	II 2.2.1.5.2				
*k <sup>(u)</sup> t	xt	*kt	II 2.2.1.1				
*rtC	$r\vartheta$	hl?	II 2.2.3.1				
$*k_{(\check{n})}$	k	k	II 2.1.1.1				
	-ka-	-k	II 2.4.4.1				
/_{*ĕ, ĭ, i, ei, ь}	č	č	II 2.1.2.2				
*k <sup>(u)</sup> /_C	x	k	II 2.1.2.1				
*k <sup>(u)</sup> t	xt	*kt	II 2.2.1.1				
$*k^{(\underline{u})}s, *k^{(\underline{u})}p^2$	xš	#š-, -šk-	II 2.2.1.2				
$*k^{(\dot{u})}m$	xm	m	II 2.2.1.3				
$*k^{(\check{u})}r$	xr	kr-	II 2.2.1.4.1				
		-hr	II 2.2.1.4.2				
$*k^{(\check{u})}\dot{\check{l}}$	ši	š	II 2.2.2.3				
*sk <sup>(ṃ)</sup> /_{*ĕ̄, т̄, m, em, ь}	Av. sč, OP s	š	II 2.2.2.1.3				

PIE \*kþ and \*ḱp are to be understood in the way they have been described by SCHINDLER 1977 and MAYHOFER 1986:150ff.: early PIE consonant groups of dental + velar stop (preserved as such in Anatolian and Tocharian) are changed to velar + þ. The outcome of this group is *kṣ* in OInd. and *xš* (in the case of PIE \*kþ) or *š* (< PIE \*ḱp) in Old Iranian.

	1	<u> </u>	1
*k	s, OP ϑ	S	II 2.1.2.3
*ks, *kþ, *gs	š	š	II 2.1.2.5
*ḱn	sn	n	II 2.2.2.2
*kr	sr	s(s)	II 2.2.2.3
*ḱu̯	Av. sp, OP s	S	II 2.1.2.4
*ki	si	š	II 2.2.2.3
*sk	S	S	II 2.1.2.3
*b <sup>(h)</sup>	b	b	II 2.1.1.2, 2.4.4.2
$*d^{(h)}$	d	d	II 2.1.1.2
*d+t	st	st	II 2.1.2.3
$*d^{(h)}m$	dm	?	II 2.2.1.3
*#d <sup>(h)</sup> u-	#du-	*v- ?	II 2.2.1.5.3
$*zd^{(h)}$	zd	z(z)	II 2.2.2.1.2
*nd <sup>(h)</sup>	nd	nd	II 2.1.1.2, 2.1.3.1
$*rd^{(h)}$	rd	rd	II 2.1.1.2, 2.1.3.2
$*g^{(\check{u})(h)}$	g	g	II 2.1.1.2
/_{*ĕ, ĭ, i, ei, ь}	Ĭ	Ĭ	II 2.1.2.2
*ǵ <sup>(h)</sup>	z	z	II 2.1.2.3
*rģ <sup>(h)</sup>	rz, OP rd	rz	II 2.1.3.2
other consonants and consonan	t clusters		
*s	h	h	II 2.1.2.6
		Ø	II 2.4.1.2
$/\{*r, \dot{r}, \breve{u}, \dot{u}, \breve{1}, \dot{i}, velars\}_{\perp}$	š	š	II 2.1.2.5
	šm, šn	m(m), n(n)	II 2.2.2.2
*st	st	st	II 2.1.2.3
*sT	sT	sT, šT	II 2.2.2.1.1
		#əsT-, #əšT-	II 2.3.4
*sk <sup>(м)</sup> /_{{*e, т, й, ей, ь}	Av. sč, OP s	š	II 2.2.2.1.3
*sk	S	S	II 2.1.2.3
*sm	hm	m(m)	II 2.2.1.3
*#su̯-	#hū-	w- /_ă, h- /_ī,ē	II 2.2.1.5.4
$*k^{(u)}s$	xš	#š, -šk-	II 2.2.1.2
*rs	rš	š(š)	II 2.2.3.2
*rz	rž	ž?	II 2.2.3.2

<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	
*Z	z	z	II 2.1.2.3
/{*r, ṛ, ਚੱ, u̯, ਚັ, i̯, velars}_	ž	ž	II 2.1.2.5
	žN	N ?	II 2.1.2.5
*zd <sup>(h)</sup>	zd	z(z)	II 2.2.2.1.2
*m	m	m	II 2.1.3.1
*k <sup>(u)</sup> m	xm	m	II 2.2.1.3
*d <sup>(h)</sup> m	dm	?	II 2.2.1.3
*sm	hm	m(m)	II 2.2.1.3
$/\{*r, r, \breve{u}, u, \breve{1}, \dot{l}, velars\}_{-}$	šm	m(m)	II 2.2.2.2
*n	n	n	II 2.1.3.1
*nd <sup>(h)</sup>	nd	nd	II 2.1.1.2, 2.1.3.1
*sn /{*r, r, ŭ, u, ĭ, i, velars}_	šn	n(n)	II 2.2.2.2
*rn	rn	n(n)	II 2.2.3.3
*1, *r	r	r	II 2.1.3.2
		l	II 2.4.2
*pro°	#fra-	ša-	II 2.2.1.4.1
*tr	Av. $\vartheta r$ , OP $\varphi$	s(s)	II 2.1.2.4
$*k^{(u)}r$	xr	kr-	II 2.2.1.4.1
		-hr-	II 2.2.1.4.2
*kr	sr	s(s)	II 2.2.2.3
$*rg^{(h)}$	rz, OP rd	rz	II 2.1.3.2
*rtC	$r\vartheta$	hl?	II 2.2.3.1
*rd <sup>(h)</sup>	rd	rd	II 2.1.1.2, 2.1.3.2
*rs	rš	š(š)	II 2.2.3.2
*rz	rž	ž?	II 2.2.3.2
*rn	rn	n(n)	II 2.2.3.3
*u /_V	u	w	II 2.1.3.3.2
	# <u>u</u> -	g-/_ĭ, ē; gw-/_ă	II 2.1.3.3.1
*-ŭ-	aua	$\bar{o}$	II 2.1.3.3.2
	āua	$\bar{a}$	II 2.1.3.3.2
	- <u>u</u> #	Ø	II 2.1.3.3.2
*pu̯	fu	hw?	II 2.2.1.5.1
*tu	ชิ้น	h ?	II 2.2.1.5.2
*#d <sup>(h)</sup> u-	#du-	*v- ?	II 2.2.1.5.3
*#su-	#hu-	w/_ <u>ă</u> , h-/_ <u>ī</u> , <u>ē</u>	II 2.2.1.5.4
*#ur-	#ur-	r?	II 2.2.3.4
*Eu /_C	au	$\bar{o}$	II 2.3.3
	1		

*i /_V	į	у	II 2.1.3.4.2			
	#i-	Ĭ-	II 2.1.3.4.1			
*- <u>i</u> -	#i̞- Ciặ Cijặ	Că	И 2.1.3.4.2			
	Cijā	$C\bar{\iota}$	II 2.1.3.4.2			
	aia	$ar{e}$	И 2.1.3.4.2			
	āja	ā	II 2.1.3.4.2			
$*k^{(\overset{\cdot}{u})}\overset{\cdot}{i}$	šį	š	И 2.2.2.3			
*Ei̯ /_C	ai	$ar{e}$	II 2.3.3			
syllabic elements						
#Ŭ-	#Ŭ-	Ø	II 2.3.1.1			
*E, i, u	a, i, u	a, i, u	II 2.3.1.2			
*Ē, ī, ū	$\bar{a}$ , $\bar{\iota}$ , $\bar{u}$	$\bar{a}, \; \bar{\iota}, \; \bar{u}$	II 2.3.1.3			
*ŗ	PIr. *ŗ	ir in palatal context	II 2.3.2.1			
		ur otherwise				
	PIr. $*\mathring{r}(n)$	ir	II 2.3.2.2			
*rH	PIr. *rH	ar	II 2.3.2.3			
*Ei /_C	ai	ē	II 2.3.3			
*iE	aja	$ar{e}$	II 2.1.3.4.2			
,	āja	$\bar{a}$	П 2.1.3.4.2			
	Cįž	Că	П 2.1.3.4.2			
	Ciiặ	$C\bar{\iota}$	II 2.1.3.4.2			
*Eu /_C	аи	ō	II 2.3.3			
*uE	аца	ō	П 2.1.3.3.2			
	āua	ā	II 2.1.3.3.2			
Ø	Ø	h	II 2.4.1.3, 2.4.1.4, 2.4.1.5, 2.4.3			
		y, w	II 2.4.3			
Development of l	PIE sounds into	Common Balochi				

#### 2.1 Consonants

This subchapter treats the outcome of Old Iranian simple consonants, i.e. the development of consonants in word-initial, intervocalic and word-final postvocalic position, and in contexts in which the development is the same as in these. Developments of consonants in clusters which differ from the development of the respective simple consonants are treated in II 2.2.

### 2.1.1 Old Iranian plosives

OIr. (voiced and voiceless) stops and affricates seem to be preserved in Balochi without any change (cf. e.g. ELFENBEIN 1989:635, SCHMITT 2000:83). This "almost complete conservatism of Bal. with regard to intervocalic consonants" (MACKENZIE 1961:72) makes Balochi look the most archaic contemporary Iranian language.

The assumption of the stops and affricates being preserved entirely unchanged from Old Iranian to Balochi is faced with several problems: both Middle Persian and Parthian show lenition of postvocalic consonants (SUNDERMANN 1989:108),<sup>3</sup> and with regard to the obviously intense contact of Balochi with neighbouring languages, one is bound to wonder whether Balochi is likely to have escaped a process which otherwise would seem to have happened in Western Iranian as a group. The alternative assumption would be that Proto-Balochi postvocalic stops underwent some lenition as MP and Parthian did and that the products were later reversed to the original state. The change which re-produced the OIr. stops may have been the same one which eliminated the OIr. fricatives of whatever source and brought about the simplicity of the Common Balochi phonemic system (cf. II 1.1.1). If so, the archaic look would be due to a secondary phenomenon.<sup>4</sup>

At any rate, most OIr. phonemic oppositions are indeed preserved in Balochi. This does constitute an important archaism and gives Balochi a special place among the Ir. languages, and makes it particularly important for the reconstruction of earlier stages in the history of the WIr. languages.

<sup>3</sup> The rules for lenition in MP are given e.g. by BACK 1981.

<sup>4</sup> For more discussion, cf. IV.

### 2.1.1.1 OIr. p, t, k

OIr. p, t, k are represented by Balochi p, t, k.

## p > p (GEIGER 1891:431f.):<sup>5</sup>

- pač-6 "cook" (Av. pača-, NP paz- / puxt, Prth. pažag "cook (noun)" / puxt), pit "father" (Av. pitar-, NP pidar, Prth. pid(ar)),
- $kap\bar{o}t^7$  "dove" (OP kapautaka- "blue", NP  $kab\bar{u}tar$ , MP  $kab\bar{o}tar$ ,  $kab\bar{o}d$ ),  $\bar{a}p^8$  "water" (Av.  $\bar{a}p$ -, NP, Prth.  $\bar{a}b$ ).

## t > t (GEIGER 1891:426f.):<sup>9</sup>

- $ta\check{c}^{-10}$  "run" (Av.  $ta\check{c}a$ -, Prth.  $ta\check{z}$  / taxt, NP  $t\bar{a}z$  /  $t\bar{a}xt$  (caus.) "hurry"),
- $b\bar{u}t^{11}$  "been" (Av.  $b\bar{u}ta$ -, NP, Prth.  $b\bar{u}d$ ),  $m\bar{a}t$  "mother" (Av.  $m\bar{a}tar$ -, NP  $m\bar{a}dar$ , Prth.  $m\bar{a}d(ar)$ ),  $gw\bar{a}t$  "wind" (Av.  $v\bar{a}ta$ -, NP  $b\bar{a}d$ , Prth.  $w\bar{a}d$ , cf. p. 99),  $hu\check{s}$  /  $hu\check{s}t^{12}$  "dry (verb, itr.)".

### k > k (GEIGER 1891:417):

• kap-/kapt "fall" (Prth. kaf-/kaft), 13 kasān "small" (Av. kasu-, NP kih, Prth. kas),

The development of p > w assumed for certain contexts by MošKALO 1991:30, 38 (with  $warn\bar{a}$  "young" as the only example) is likely to be attributed to loanwords only (cf. II 3.3.1.6.2).

<sup>6</sup> The past stem is *pakt* (NAWATA 1981:17), *paht*, *pāt* (EAL: Raxšānī, Sarawānī), *patk* (BMC, EAL, FBB), *pakkit* (EAL, EVM, SOKOLOV 1956:81).

<sup>7</sup> EAL 83 seems to assume Ind. influence. However, there seems to be nothing in Modern Ind. languages which would fit here. Conversely, Arm. *kapoyt* "blue" shows that the word must have existed already in Middle Iranian (cf. GIPPERT 1993/I:334).

<sup>8</sup> According to GEIGER 1891:444, this word might also have been borrowed from Persian. For devoicing of word-final consonants in loanwords, cf. II 3.3.1.4.

<sup>9</sup> Moškalo 1991:31 assumes an additional change of OIr. t > Bal. s, the examples being the family terms pis "father",  $m\bar{a}s$  "mother" etc. (besides pit,  $m\bar{a}t$  etc.). These are better explained as going back to the oblique stems  $pi\vartheta r$ - etc., however, cf. p. 89.

<sup>10</sup> The past stem is *tatk* (BMC, EAL, FBB), *tā(h)t* (EAL: Raxšānī), *taht* (EAL: Raxšānī), *tačit* (EAL, SOKOLOV 1956:80).

<sup>11</sup> Words with  $\bar{u}$  also occur in variants with  $\bar{t}$ , thence  $b\bar{t}t$  (cf. II 3.1.2.3.1). For the pres. stem, cf. p. 78.

<sup>12</sup> For further discussion of huš- / hušt, cf. p. 94, 316.

<sup>13</sup> Cognates of this word, which has considered NWIr., include Kurd. kev-/ket'-, Zaz. kewn-/kewt-.

•  $makisk^{14}$  "fly" (NP, Prth. magas),  $r\bar{e}k^{15}$  "sand" (NP  $r\bar{e}g$ ),  $hu\check{s}k$  "dry" (Av.  $hu\check{s}ka$ -, NP  $xu\check{s}k$ , Prth.  $hu\check{s}k$ ).

For OIr. k in suffixes, cf. II 2.4.4.1.

In Eastern Balochi, postvocalic p, t, k yield f,  $\vartheta$ , x, while word-initial p, t, k are aspirated (cf. II 3.2.1.1.1).

### 2.1.1.2 OIr. b, d, g

OIr. b, d, g are represented by Balochi b, d, g.

b > b (GEIGER 1891:433):

- *bay-* / *būt*<sup>16</sup> "become" (Av. *būta-*, NP, Prth. *buw-* / *būd*), *brāt* "brother" (Av. *brātar-*, NP *barādar*, Prth. *brād(ar)*),
- kumb<sup>17</sup> "pool" (Av. xumba-, NP xum(b) "jar", Prth. xumb "jug"). 18

For variants and for a > i, cf. II 3.1.2.3.1. Balochi and NP point to PIIr. \*makas(-ka)- (EAL 98), whereas Av. ( $max \check{s}i$ -) and OInd. ( $m\acute{a}k \check{s}$ -,  $m\acute{a}k \check{s}ik \bar{a}$ -) derive from PIIr. \*makš-.

<sup>15</sup> For the variant  $r\bar{t}k$  "desert", cf. p. 199. The classification of  $r\bar{e}k$  as a NP loanword (thus GEIGER 1891:444) is possible (for devoicing of word-final consonants in loanwords, cf. II 3.3.1.4), but not necessary. The word is probably neither to be connected to  $s\bar{t}kat\bar{a}$ - as HORN 1893:142 assumes nor to Av. √raēk, OInd. √ric, Bal.  $r\bar{e}\check{c}$ - "pour" as GEIGER 1890:143 maintains, but rather to OInd. √ri "flow" and words for "river" derived from this root in a number of IE languages, for which cf. EWAia II:437.

The present stem *bay*- (SHG, EVM, EAL: Raxšānī) might be derived (SOKOLOV 1956:81f.) from \*baū- (then a SWIr. form, cf. TEDESCO 1921:197) or be connected with Av. *buuainti* in some way (not regular by Bal. sound laws). Other present stems of this verb are *b*- (EAL: Kečī, Coastal, Sarawānī, Lāšārī, Eastern dialects), *bēy*- (ABG, FBB, EAL: Lāšārī), *bū*- (ABG, BMC, NAWATA 1981), *buw*- (SHG). For a parallel variation of present stems in the case of "give" (*day*- etc.), cf. p. 270.

The Osset. verb wyn "to be" cited by GEB might belong here despite the irregular development of OIr. b->w- noted by HÜBSCHMANN 1890:555; it might show an assimilation of \*baua-> \*w-w-(CHEUNG 2002:244).

<sup>17</sup> For a detailed discussion of this word, cf. p. 82f.

<sup>18</sup> There is a certain shortage of examples with postvocalic and word-final *b* and sure etymology. For some further possible examples, cf. II 2.4.4.2.

### d > d (GEIGER 1891:429):

- $d\bar{o}\check{c}^{-19}$  "sew" (NP  $d\bar{o}z$  /  $d\bar{o}xt$ ),  $dant\bar{a}n^{20}$  "tooth" (Av.  $dant\bar{a}n$ -, NP, Prth.  $dand\bar{a}n$ ),
- šōd-<sup>21</sup> "wash" (NP šōy- / šust, Prth. šōδ- / šust), kadī "when" (Av. kaδa, NP kai, Prth. kaδ), pād "foot" (Av. pād-, NP pāy, Prth. pāδ), šud "hunger" (YAv. šuδ-, NP šuy, OInd. kṣúd<sup>h</sup>-), ādēnk<sup>22</sup> "mirror" (NP āyīna,<sup>23</sup> Prth. āδēnag),
- OIr. nd and rd are also preserved as such:<sup>24</sup> sind-<sup>25</sup> "break" (OInd.  $\sqrt{c^h}id$ :  $c^hin\acute{a}d$ -, Prth. °sind- / sist (GHILAIN 1939:83)), gind-<sup>26</sup> "see" (Av.  $\sqrt{va\bar{e}d}$ : vinad-, OInd.  $\sqrt{vid}$ :  $vind\acute{a}$ -, Prth. wind- /  $wind\bar{a}d$ ).

21 The most common past stem is *šušt*, which shows an assimilation vs. the less common variant *šust*, cf. p. 180.

- 23 The contemporary form is *āyina*, but the *Šāhnāma* has *āyīna*.
- 24 There is no trace of the assimilation nd > nn found in some cases of MPM (cf. HENNING 1958:98). For rd, cf. II 2.1.3.2.
- 25 Note the preservation of the present stem with nasal infix also seen in OInd. *c<sup>h</sup>inátti*. As HÜBSCHMANN 1890:559 observes, *sind* (past stem *sist*) cannot belong to Av. √skand, NP *šikan* / *šikast* as GEB 342 presumes, but rather with Av. √saēd (HÜBSCHMANN 1890:559), NP *gu-sistan* (HORN 1893:205). The present stem of the latter, *gu-sil*-, may come from PIr. \*srd which could belong with OInd. √śr, this in turn being preserved in *gu-sār* (HORN 1901:139); alternatively, *gusil-* / *gusist* (< \*gusid-, √saēd) may have been borrowed from Eastern Iranian which would explain the *l* for expected *d* (Nicholas Sims-Williams, personal communication).
- This is a suppletive verb (GEIGER 1891:429) with the present stem from OIr., OInd.  $\sqrt{\text{vid}}$  "find" (thus not corresponding to NP  $b\bar{t}n$ -, Zaz.  $v\hat{e}n$ -, MP, Prth.  $w\bar{e}n$  < Av.  $\sqrt{\text{va\bar{e}n}}$ ) and the past stem  $d\bar{t}t$  etc. (cf. p. 188) from OIr.  $\sqrt{\text{d}\bar{t}}$ , OInd.  $\sqrt{\text{d}^{\text{h}}\bar{t}}$  "look" (GEIGER 1890:122). A trace of the expected past stem Bal. \*gist- (Av. vista-) may be seen in the past stem variant dist (cf. p. 188).

<sup>19</sup> Past stem dōtk (BMC, EAL, FBB), dōt (Turkmenistan), EBal. dōxt, cf. also p. 230, 248, 257.

<sup>20</sup> For variants, cf. p. 180.

HÜBSCHMANN observed (1890:561) that  $\check{sod}$ - cannot belong to OInd.  $\checkmark \acute{sud}^h$  "purify" as presumed by GEB and that Av.  $x\check{sao}\delta ah$ - "river" and  $x\check{susta}$ - "melted, liquid" do not fit well with regard to the meaning. However, it seems preferable to assume that the Av., Bal. etc. forms do belong together, and to connect them to OInd.  $\checkmark ksud$  "spread, crush, let flow" (EWAia I:439).

g > g (GEIGER 1891:419):

- $gas-/gast^{27}$  "bite" (NP  $gaz-/gaz\bar{\iota}d$ , Prth.  $gaz-/ga\check{s}t$ , OInd.  $\sqrt{g\bar{a}h}$ ),  $g\bar{o}k$  "cow" (Av. gau-, Prth., NP  $g\bar{a}w$ , cf. p. 102, 163),
- $nig\bar{o}\check{s}$ -<sup>28</sup> "listen" (Av.  $\sqrt{\text{gao}\check{s}}$ , NP  $niy\bar{o}\check{s}$ -/  $niy\bar{o}\check{s}\bar{\imath}d$ , Prth.  $ni\gamma\bar{o}\check{s}$ -/  $ni\gamma\bar{o}\check{s}\bar{a}d$ ),  $b\bar{o}g^{29}$  "joint" (OInd.  $b^hog\acute{a}$  "bend").

In Eastern Balochi, postvocalic b, d, g yield  $\beta$ ,  $\delta$ , g, respectively (cf. II 3.2.1.1.1).

### 2.1.2 Old Iranian fricatives and affricates

### 2.1.2.1 OIr. f, $\vartheta$ , x

OIr. f,  $\vartheta$ , x (i.e. the product of PIE stop /\_C, including PIE stop + \*h<sub>2</sub>, which comes out as OInd.  $p^h$ ,  $t^h$ ,  $k^h$ ), change to the corresponding stops (HÜBSCHMANN 1879:387), i.e. they fall together with the outcome of OIr. p, t, k. Similarly, fricatives occurring in loanwords of all times and sources are in most cases replaced by the corresponding stops (cf. II 1.2.2).

This change effects the striking absence of fricatives in the phonemic system of Common Balochi (cf. II 1.1.1).

<sup>27</sup> The past stem *gast* has hitherto only been found in YŪSEFIYĀN 1992:108. The EBal. past stem is *gasiϑ*- (MAYER 1910). According to MORGENSTIERNE 1932:45, the present stem (which is also found in SHG) shows the inchoative suffix OIr. -*s*- (PIE \*-ske-) attached to the root seen in Av. √gah (OInd. √gʰas) "eat, devour". A connection to Prth. and NP *gaz*- / *gašt* "bite" (NP *gašt* is found in addition to *gazīd* according to HORN 1895:197) seems more likely, however. Parthian and NP may go back to \*gegʰ "intrude, enter" (LIV p. 183, BAILEY 1979:349a) and the Bal. verb to an inchoative present from this root. The Bal. past stems are then secondary formations based on the present stem.

<sup>28</sup> The past stem is nigōšt (DTB, EAL, GEB) or nigōšit (BMC). "To hear" is uškunag etc. (cf. p. 147).

<sup>29</sup> The only Av. form which might be connected is  $a^ipi\delta bao\gamma a$ - (if "hinterher einbiegend", BARTHOLOMAE 1904:85), but there are Khot. forms belonging here (EWAia II 275). GILBERTSON assumes (1925:362) that Bal.  $b\bar{o}g$  has been borrowed from Urdu, but no fitting form seems to exist.

<sup>30</sup> For OIr. f,  $\vartheta$ , x /\_C, cf. II 2.2.1.

f > p (Geiger 1891:432):<sup>31</sup>

•  $k\bar{o}pag$  "shoulder" (Av. kaofa-, NP  $k\bar{o}h$  "mountain", Prth.  $k\bar{o}f$  "hill"),  $kap^{32}$  "foam" (Av. kafa-, NP kaf),  $n\bar{a}pag$  "navel" (Av.  $n\bar{a}fa$ -, NP  $n\bar{a}f$ , Prth.  $n\bar{a}fag$  "centre").

 $\vartheta > t$  (GEIGER 1891:427):<sup>33</sup>

patan "wide" (Av. paϑana-, NP pahn), gūt "mud" (Av. gūϑa- "excrement", NP gūh), mētag³⁴ "village" (Av. maēϑana- "place of living", NP mēhan "homeland").

An older stage of Parthian is likely to have had  $\vartheta$  (SUNDERMANN 1989a:123), while PrthT has h for OIr.  $\vartheta$ . This means that Balochi reflects the stage of older Parthian.

x > k (GEIGER 1891:417f.):

Although it has long been assumed that OIr. x yields Bal.  $k^{35}$ , one might also consider

<sup>31</sup> GEIGER 1891:432 cites *hapt* "7" as one of his examples, but the Bal. numeral system is likely to have been borrowed from Persian (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:78, GEIGER 1901a:216, KORN, frthc. 3). MOŠKALO's assumption (1991:36) that OIr. *f* may result in Bal. *h* (besides Bal. *p*, MOŠKALO 1991:38) is rather unfounded since his example  $k\bar{o}h$  "mountain" has surely been borrowed from NP (cf. the genuine development in  $k\bar{o}pag$  "shoulder").

<sup>32</sup> kap (only in PIERCE 1874 cited by Geiger, and EAL) could also be a loanword (NP kaf).

<sup>33</sup> GEIGER 1891:427 also cites čāt "source, well" and derives it from OIr. \*čāϑ- (thus corresponding to NP čāħ), but čāt may also be derived from OIr. (Av.) čāt- (HÜBSCHMANN 1890:555). ān-gāt (EVM), an-gat "yet" may likewise come from OIr. gātu- (while NP ān-gāħ, ān-gaħ will be from OP gāϑu- "place"). gāħ "time" is also attested in Balochi and may have been borrowed from NP. Moškalo (1991:36, 38) assumes that OIr. ϑ gives Bal. ħ, but his examples šāħ "king" and rāħ "road" may rather be NP loanwords. Similarly, Moškalo 1991:22 infers from prāħ "wide" (Av. fraϑaħ-) that OIr. aϑa results in Bal. ā, but prāħ is likewise a Pers. borrowing (cf. p. 117).

<sup>34</sup> For further cognates, cf. BAILEY 1979:219a.

It seems that Bartholomae was the first one to clarify this point. Referring to GEIGER 1889, he states: "Geiger, Dialektsp., S. 77 sieht in har und handag ächte Balutšiwörter. Gewiss mit Unrecht. Die ächten Wörter sind die mit k und k', die andern aus dem neupers. xandīdan, xar entlehnt" (BARTHOLOMAE 1890:550). MORGENSTIERNE 1948:254 also discusses this point with the conclusion that k is the regular outcome. Moškalo 1991:27 has both Bal. k (1991:27) and Bal. h (1991:36), the examples for the latter being har "donkey" (see below) and suhr "red" (for OIr. xr, cf. II 2.2.1.4.2). The following words probably do not belong here: sīk (SHG), sīh (DTB, GEB, YŪSEFIYĀN 1992:96), sī (GEB, SHG) "pike, hook" is likely to have been borrowed from NP sēx (CNP sīx). The etymology is not clear: there are no OIr. cognates, and the connection with OInd. śikhará- "pointed" etc. has been rejected by KEWA III:334.

the alternative hypothesis that the regular outcome is h since most examples are indeed attested both with k and with h. Variants with x are clearly loanwords from Persian. But neither the words with h nor those with k are sure evidence since Persian words with k can be rendered with k or k in Balochi (cf. II 1.2.2). The relevant examples are the following ones:

Old, Middle Ir. etc.	Balochi	NP	
Av. <i>vi-xāδa-</i> "break off" OInd. √kʰād	$k\bar{a}d$ (noun), EBal. $k^h\bar{a}\delta$ - / $k^h\bar{a}\delta i\vartheta$ - (verb)	xāy- / xāyīd	"chew, bite"
Av. <i>xąniia-</i> MP, Prth. <i>xānīg</i> OInd. <i>kʰá̄-</i>	$k\bar{a}n(\bar{\imath}g)$	xānī	"spring, well"
Av. xara-	$k^h ar$ ; $(h)ar$ ; $xar$	xar	"donkey"
OInd. khará-	kargōš, xargōšk	xargōš	"rabbit (lit.: donkey-ear)"
Prth. xand- "smile"	kand- / kandit; (h)and- / handit; xand- / xandit <sup>36</sup>	xand- / xandīd	"laugh"
Av. xumba- Prth. xumb	kumb "pool, jar"; humb "jar"	xum(b)	"pot, vessel"
OP mayŭxa-, Prth. mēx, OInd. mayū́kʰa-	mīk "top of head", mik, EAL mēk; mēh "tent peg", EVM mī	mēx, CNP mīx	"stake, pole, nail"
Prth. <i>năxun</i> <sup>37</sup> OInd. <i>nak<sup>h</sup>á-</i>	nākun, nā(h)un, EBal. (DTB) nāxun	nāxun	"fingernail"
OInd. <i>śākʰā-</i>	šāh, šāx	$\check{s}\bar{a}x(a)$	"branch, horn"
Bal. cognates of words with OIr. x			

The origin of  $(h)\bar{o}rk$  (BMC, EVM, EAL, SHG),  $h\bar{o}r(g)$  (DTB),  $k\bar{o}rk$  (BRAY 1934:185, according to EAL used in Kēčī, but perhaps non-existent according to Rossi 1979:29), (h)urk (for which cf. p. 188) "empty" is not clear. According to Rossi 1979:29, Brahui  $x\bar{o}rk$ ,  $h\bar{o}rk$  has probably been borrowed from Balochi, but this need not imply the existence of Bal. \* $x\bar{o}rk$ , since the Br. word may also have been borrowed from  $h\bar{o}rk$ . GEIGER's argument (1891:451) that the word has been borrowed from NP  $x\bar{o}l\bar{a}$  "empty" because of the Bal. h- is not convincing either (Rossi 1979:29). It remains possible, but far from sure, that Bal.  $(h)\bar{o}rk$  is a cognate of some sort of NP  $x\bar{o}la$ .

<sup>36</sup> xand- is from DTB and GEB. hand- is qualified as a loanword by ELFENBEIN 1990/II:68.

Prth. <n'xwn> is found in Angad Rōšnān Ia 1b, which is to be read (correcting BOYCE 1954:120) <hrw [b]nd pdbnd o w n'xw(n m)[yx] cy bndyst'n> "every tie, bar and nail, rivet of the prison" (Desmond Durkin-Meisterernst, personal communication), <nxwn> is attested twice. MP also has năxun according to MACKENZIE 1986:xxiii.

#### Notes:

- k<sup>h</sup>āδ- is found in Morgenstierne 1932:48, also mentioned by Bailey 1979:72b, but not found in any of the glossaries apart from Mayer 1910. Elfenbein 1985:233 suggests that it might have been borrowed from Indic (e.g. Lhd. k<sup>h</sup>ād<sup>h</sup> "food") and that kād is a "Balochified Persian form for expected Bal \*kāz", i.e. a hypercorrect substitution of "Pers." d for z on the model of Bal. zāmāt, NP dāmād "son-in-law", Bal. zān-, NP dān- "know". As these two are the only examples of exact pairs (Bal. zird vs. NP dil "heart" and the other examples where NP shows d will certainly not be recognised as etymologically related pairs), which moreover have the speciality of z/d in word-initial position, such a substitution does not seem likely. Moreover, no Modern Ir. \*xāz seems available which might have suffered the hypercorrect change that Elfenbein assumes.<sup>38</sup> It is much more probable that kād is either the genuine Bal. form or borrowed from an Ind. language. At any rate, k<sup>h</sup>āδ- may be a denominative from kād.
- kānīg (also kā(h)n (BMC), kahnī(g))<sup>39</sup> is also attested indirectly in Br. k<sup>h</sup>ānī (Bal. loanword, MORGENSTIERNE 1932:48). According to EWAia I:451, this word (the OInd. cognate is k<sup>h</sup>ā-) does not belong to NP kan- / kand "dig" (OInd. √k<sup>h</sup>an). Av. has xā- and xaniia- (cf. Kellens 1974:384).
- *k*<sup>h</sup>*ar* is only found in GCD, *xar* in DTB, GEB, GCD. *kargōš* occurs in NAWATA 1981:35, *xargōšk* in DTB. One might also connect the first member of Bal. *kargōš*, NP *xargōš* to the *xar* of NP *xarsang* "rock" (from *sang* "stone") and postulate a word *xar*° "big". However, the existence of such a word is not sure (*xarsang* would be the only example), and rabbits are not usually called "having big ears" (it is rather "having long ears" which is a common designation, but this does not match the meaning of *xar* in *xarsang*), given that they are rather small animals.
- *kumb* "pool" (declared possibly genuine Balochi by MORGENSTIERNE 1948:288) may have been borrowed from Si. *kumb*<sup>h</sup>u "pond" (thus ELFENBEIN 1990/II:80), and *kumb* "jar" could be from Ur. *kumb*<sup>h</sup>(a) or from NP *xumb*.
- It is not clear whether OIr.  $-ay\bar{u}$  (OP  $may\bar{u}xa$ -) would give Bal.  $\bar{e}$  or  $\bar{\iota}$  or rather something else. There seems to be no EBal.  $\dagger m\bar{e}/\bar{\iota}x < m\bar{e}/\bar{\iota}k$  which would make the case for an inherited word stronger.<sup>40</sup>
- *šāx* is found in ABG, DTB, EAL, EVM, GEB. *šāh* is qualified as a loanword by ELFENBEIN 1990/II:68. OInd. initial *ś* does not usually correspond to Ir. *š*. <sup>41</sup> I do not see how NP *šāx* etc. could be connected (as does BAILEY 1979:409b) to OInd. *śŕnga* "horn". <sup>42</sup>

It is probable, although not entirely sure, that k is the regular outcome: most items are represented by a form with k, although the number alone is no conclusive evidence. For systematic reasons, one would also expect Bal. k from OIr. x, parallel to Bal. p and t

<sup>38</sup> Elfenbein implies (as does EMMERICK 1968:26) that NP  $x\bar{a}y$ - belongs with Prth.  $x\bar{a}z$ - /  $x\bar{a}z\bar{a}d$  "devour" and Khot.  $k^h\bar{a}s$ - "eat" and not (as presumed by EWAia I:451f.) with OInd.  $\sqrt{k^h\bar{a}d}$ .

<sup>39</sup> For WBal.  $ah > \bar{a}$  and its hypercorrect reversal, cf. II 3.2.3.3.

<sup>40</sup> GEIGER 1890:136 assumes that  $m\bar{e}h$  (also in DTB) has been borrowed from NP. For further discussion of the Ir. (proto-)forms, cf. ABAEV I:124f., EWAia II:317. For mik "nail", cf. p. 187.

<sup>41</sup> Cf. KLINGENSCHMITT 1982:169, 2000:208 and EWAia II:628 for a discussion of this problem.

<sup>42</sup> For a Bal. cognate of this word, cf. p. 130.

from OIr. f,  $\vartheta$ , respectively. Another argument may be that Kurdish, which is closely related to Balochi in a number of other aspects, has k' (MACKENZIE 1961:71):  $k'\hat{e}r$  "donkey",  $k'en\hat{i}n$  "to laugh",  $k'an\hat{i}$  "spring",  $kor\bar{o}s$  (cited by GEIGER 1890:133) "cock",  $k'i\bar{r}\hat{i}n$  (OInd.  $\sqrt{kr\bar{i}}$ , NP xar- /  $xar\bar{i}d$ , no cognate attested in Balochi) "to buy".

The frequent replacement of x by h in loanwords might be explained as being analogical to words with a regular opposition Bal. h vs. NP x. This is the case with OIr. hu-, which regularly gives Bal. hu-, NP xu- (e.g. Bal.  $hu\check{s}k$  vs. NP  $xu\check{s}k$  "dry", Bal.  $h\bar{u}k$  vs. NP  $x\bar{u}k$  "pig", cf. II 2.1.2.6). On the other hand, a replacement of x by x would be parallel to the replacement of x by x0 and of y2 by y3 (cf. II 1.2.2), but is much less common and seems to be restricted to SBal. dialects.

For secondary NP x-, cf. II 2.4.1.4. For OIr. hu- (NP  $x^w$ -), cf. II 2.2.1.5.4.

## 2.1.2.2 OIr. č, j

OIr.  $\check{c}$  and  $\check{j}$  (from PIE  ${}^*k^{(u)}$  and  ${}^*g^{(u)(h)}$  before palatal vowels) seem to be preserved in Balochi. As in the case of the stops, it is possible that in postvocalic position, Bal.  $\check{c}$ ,  $\check{j}$  go back to lenited allophones, the OIr. state of affairs being restituted later. However, as there is evidence for the preservation of  $\check{c}$ ,  $\check{j}$  in Middle NWIr. (see below), it may be assumed that they have indeed been preserved in their OIr. form.

 $\check{c} > \check{c}$  (Geiger 1891:423f.):<sup>45</sup>

•  $\check{c}ar(r)$ -<sup>46</sup> "turn" (Av.  $\check{c}ara$ - "move", Prth.  $\check{c}ar$ - "graze"),  $\check{c}am(m)$  "eye" (Av.  $\check{c}a\check{s}man$ -, NP, Prth.  $\check{c}a\check{s}m$ ),  $\check{c}in$ -<sup>47</sup> "pick, gather" (Av.  $\check{c}inao$ -, NP, Prth.  $\check{c}\bar{i}n$ - /  $\check{c}\bar{i}d$ ),

<sup>43</sup> GERSHEVITCH 1971:257<sup>24</sup> assumes that the word-initial consonant of MPZ *haftār/xaftār* "hyena" and some Ir. cognates is due to an assimilation of fricatives vs. the original form seen in NP *kaftār* etc. If so, Bal. *haptār* is likely to be a MP borrowing (thus also Sogd. 'βt'r, cf. SIMS-WILLIAMS 1976:61).

<sup>44</sup> Zazaki has h, e.g. her "donkey", hêrn-, erin- "buy".

<sup>45</sup> Geiger's example gwač "calf" is likely to be a loanword, cf. p. 280.

<sup>46</sup> Most Bal. dialects have two verbs (EAL 31) čar(r)- / čar(r)it "turn" and čar- "graze" (past stem čart (BMC), čarit (EAL)). This is a secondary distinction as both are etymologically identical (Av. √čar, OInd. √car). However, the verb may also have been borrowed from NP, Urdu or Sindhi (cf. p. 319).

<sup>47</sup> The past stem is *čit*; EAL seems to be the only source which also has *čint*, maybe taken from the alleged past stem *gičint* (cf. next footnote).

•  $gi\check{c}in^{-48}$  "select, choose" (Av.  $v\bar{\imath}$ - $\check{c}inao$ -, NP  $guz\bar{\imath}n$ - /  $guz\bar{\imath}d$ , Prth.  $wi\check{z}\bar{\imath}n$ - /  $wi\check{z}\bar{\imath}d$ -)<sup>49</sup> < \*ui-vin-,  $s\bar{o}\check{c}in^{50}$  "needle" (NP  $s\bar{o}zan$ ),  $r\bar{o}\check{c}$  "day" (Av.  $rao\check{c}ah$ -, NP  $r\bar{o}z$ , Prth.  $r\bar{o}\check{z}$ ),  $a\check{c}^{51}$  "of" (Av.  $ha\check{c}a$ , NP az, Prth.  $a\check{z}$ ).

It is commonly assumed that intervocalic  $\check{c}$  has resulted in  $\check{z}$  in Parthian, but earlier stages of the language must have preserved  $\check{c}$  as is shown by loanwords in Armenian

- 49 The Prth. present stem is found only twice (DURKIN-MEISTERERNST 2004:338a). The  $\bar{\imath}$  in the Pers. verb is likely to be due to a metanalysis of \*wizid as containing the past stem suffix  $-\bar{\imath}d$ , and the same probably applies to the Pers. simplex  $\check{cid} < *\check{cid}$  (SALEMANN 1901:272). The  $\bar{\imath}$  might then have spread to the present stems MP  $wiz\bar{\imath}n$ -,  $\check{cin}$  (HORN 1901:26). The Manichæan orthography does not allow to determine the quantity of the i in the corresponding Prth. forms, but it has been assumed that these are likewise to be read  $wi\check{zin}$  /  $wi\check{zid}$ ,  $\check{cin}$  /  $\check{cid}$ .
- NAWATA 1981:37, otherwise  $s\bar{u}\check{c}(\check{c})in$ ; for dialectal variants, cf. p. 194, 198, 200. The word is likely to belong to OInd.  $s\bar{u}c\hat{i}$  "needle" (with s- for \* $\hat{s}$  in analogy to  $\sqrt{\text{sy}}$  "sew", EWAia II:739).
- This form is mainly used in the Southern dialects (BMC: Makrānī, EAL: Coastal, Kēčī, Sarāwānī, Lāšārī, SHG). A variant without initial vowel and with secondary vowel after the consonant is also used (cf. NP zi, z-): ča (BMC: Makrānī, EAL, SHG), či (EAL: Eastern, Coastal), čē (FBB). Other variants include aš (BMC, DTB, EAL), š- (DTB), ša (BMC, EVM, NAWATA 1981:30, EAL: Raxšānī, SHG). The latter lead Moškalo (1991:33, 38) to assume Bal. š as a second outcome of OIr. č. However, aš seems better explained as a EBal. dialect variant (for CBal. postvocalic č > EBal. š, cf. II 3.2.1.1.1) and š(a) as modelled on the SWBal. variant č(a). For the variants až, ža, cf. p. 179. NP az is also in use (SHG).

<sup>48</sup> This verb is found in MOCKLER 1877 (thence GEIGER 1890:122), EAL (maybe from the same source), and SHG. The past stem is gičit. The past stem gičint mentioned in EAL is likely to be based on EBal. gišint<sup>h</sup>- with a reversal of CBal.  $\check{c}/V_{V} > EBal. \check{s}$  (cf. II 3.2.1.1). gišint<sup>h</sup>- noted by GEIGER 1890:122 is obviously an error for gišainth- taken from DAMES 1881:106, though. The following EBal. forms are found: GILBERTSON 1925:121, 586 has gišēn- / gišēnth-, DTB gišain- / gišainth-. The seemingly causative formation gišēn- and the "double causative" (cf. V 1.7.8) gišainare probably due to an adaptation of the unusual stem in -in- to the common causative formations, the past stems also being formed as if derived from a regular causative stem. ELFENBEIN 1985:231 assumes that gičēn "selected, chosen, outstanding" is the result of a contamination of  $g\bar{e}\check{c}$ - "sift" (for which cf. p. 98) and  $gi\check{c}in$ -, i.e. of the past stem  $gi\check{c}int$  (for which see above), via \*gēčēn(t). An easier way than this rather complicated assumption would be to have  $gi\check{c}\bar{e}n$  influenced by the present stem in  $-\bar{e}n$ - and/or the adj. suffix  $-\bar{e}n$ . No specific explanation is necessary, however: gičēn may directly correspond to MPZ <wcyn> which is interpreted as wizēn "choice" by MACKENZIE 1986:93. MP wizēn (and Bal. gičēn) may be derived from \*ui-čai-ana-, parallel to other formations from the full grade of a root in \*ai with suffix \*-ana-, e.g. (MACKENZIE 1986:85) uzēnag "exit" vs. uzīdan "go out" (Nicholas Sims-Williams, personal communication). MPZ wizēn which is attested several times as a simplex (Shaul Shaked, personal communication) is also found in compounds (<wcyn-kl> "chooser, selective", <hwp-wcynyh> "good choosing"), and the same applies to Bal. gičēn, e.g. gičēn-kār (BMC, EAL) "electing, elector", x-gičēn "selecting x".

(cf. GIPPERT 2000:2) and Hungarian<sup>52</sup> and reflected by the spellings with <c>. Balochi thus corresponds to the Early Parthian stage with regard to word-internal  $\check{c}$ , while some Zazaki dialects have  $/\check{j}$ /, and Middle and Late Parthian and Kurdish show  $/\check{z}$ /.

## i > i (Geiger 1891:424):

- jan- / jat<sup>53</sup> "strike" (Av. jan- / jata-, NP zan- / zad, Prth. žan- / žad), jan "woman, wife" (Av. jaini-, NP zan, Prth. žan),
- $b\bar{o}j^{-54}$  "open" (Av.  $b\bar{u}ja$ -, MP  $b\bar{o}z$  /  $b\bar{o}xt$ , Prth.  $b\bar{o}z$  /  $b\bar{o}xt$ , both "save"), raj- /  $rajit^{55}$  "colour (tr.)" (NP raz- / rast, raztd, OInd.  $\sqrt{raj}$  "colour"),  $dr\bar{a}j$  "long" (Av.  $^{\circ}dr\bar{a}jah$ -, NP  $dir\bar{a}z$ ).

Again, attested Parthian shows a more advanced stage, namely  $\check{z}$ , except for an allophone  $\check{j}$  after n (RASTORGUEVA/MOLČANOVA 1981a:159, 177), possibly also after r, (cf. DURKIN-MEISTERERNST p. 56). Kurdish has  $\check{z}$ , too. Zazaki, however, preserves  $\check{j}$  in some dialects, so this stage may be postulated for Early Middle NWIranian.

In Eastern Balochi, č, j yield š, ž in postvocalic position (cf. II 3.2.1.1.1).

#### 2.1.2.3 OIr. (non-Persian) s, z

As in other North-Western Iranian languages, the Bal. outcome of the PIE palatals  $(*\acute{k}, *\acute{g}^{(h)} > PIIr. *\acute{c}, *\acute{j}^{(h)} > PIr. *\acute{s}, *\acute{z}; OP \vartheta, d > MP/NP h, d)$  falls together with s, z of other sources (PIE \*s in consonant clusters):

<sup>52</sup> Hungarian *vásár* "market", obviously borrowed from a cognate of NP *bāzār*, must go back to a word with -*č*-, i.e. presupposes \*uačar (BENKŐ 1993ff.:1610) which can also be seen in Arm. *vačar* and Georg. *vačar*- "tradesman".

<sup>53</sup> This verb belongs to a small group of verbs which have a 3sg. ending -t (jant) vs. usual  $-\bar{t}(t)$ .

<sup>54</sup> EAL 17 considers this verb (past stem *bōtk* etc., cf. p. 230, 241) as "perhaps genuine (...) rather than L[oan]W[ord]" from Si./Lhd. *buj j̄¹aṇu*, which indeed does not fit well since there is no evidence that Bal. -ō- (in all dialects and stems) is secondary. For cognates of the root in non-Ir. languages (e.g. Latin *fugiō* "flee"), cf. LIV p. 84.

<sup>55</sup> The etymology of *raj*- has apparently gone unnoticed so far, nor is the word noted in linguistic works treating Balochi. For Ir. cognates, cf. BAILEY 1979:362, MACIUSZAK 1996:26, 28 (who do not mention Bal. *raj*-), for the EBal. variant, cf. p. 229.

Non-Pers. OIr. s > s (GEIGER 1891:430f.):<sup>56</sup>

- PIE \*k:
  - $s\bar{o}\dot{c}$ -57 "burn sth." (Av.  $sao\check{c}a$ -, OInd.  $\sqrt{\sin}$ , NP  $s\bar{o}z$  /  $s\bar{o}xt$ , Prth.  $s\bar{o}\check{z}$  / suxt (GHILAIN 1939:63)),
  - āsin "iron" (NP āhan, Prth. āsun),<sup>58</sup> brēs-<sup>59</sup> "spin" (Av. uruuaēsa-, NP rēs- / rišt, Prth. ā-rwis- / ā-rwist, ā-rwisād), rōpāsk "fox" (NP rōbāh, Prth. rōbās, OInd. lopāśá-), pas "sheep, goat" (Av. pasu-, OInd. paśú-, MP pah, Prth. pas), gis "house" (Av. vīs-, OInd. víś-, Prth. wis°);
- PIE \*sk: *sind- / sist* "break" (Av. √saēd, OInd. √chid, cf. also p. 79); suffix \*ske-<sup>60</sup>: *tus-* "suffocate" (cf. NP *tuhī*, Prth. *tusīg*, both "empty"), *tōs-*<sup>61</sup> "extinguish" vs. forms without this suffix, e.g. Av. *taošaiia-*; *waps-*<sup>62</sup> "go to sleep" (Av. *x*<sup>v</sup>*afsa-*);
- PIE \*tst: past part. in PIE \*-d-to- (OIr. -s-ta-), e.g. rust (pres. rud- "grow", Prth., NP rust); sist (pres. sind-, see above).

Geiger's example  $s\bar{a}$ 'ig "shadow" (also  $s\bar{a}hig$ ,  $s\bar{a}yig$  (EAL, cf. p. 162),  $s\bar{a}\bar{i}$  (EAL),  $s\bar{a}yag$  (BMC)) is likely to have been borrowed, and the same applies to its compound  $hams\bar{a}$ 'ig,  $hams\bar{a}hig$  "neighbour" (NP  $hams\bar{a}ya$ ). The variant  $s\bar{a}h$  (DTB, EAL) may be inherited (cf. p. 109).  $si\bar{a}ig$  (EVM) "shadowy" is probably rather to be connected with  $sy\bar{a}h$  "black".

<sup>57</sup> Balochi preserves the distinction between zero-grade *suč*- "burn (itr.)" (past stem *sutk* (BMC, EAL, FBB), *suht* (EAL: Raxšānī), *sut* (Turkmenistan)) and full grade *sōč*- "burn (tr.)". The past stem (*sōtk* (BMC, EAL, FBB), *sōht* (EAL: Raxšānī), *sōt* (Turkmenistan)) has probably been modelled on the present stem, in order to distinguish it from the past stem of *suč*-.

These forms may most conveniently be derived from \*āśuan(i)iā- > MPZ <'syn'>, Psht. ōspīna, \*āśuna- > MPM āhun, Prth. āsun, Zaz. asın, Kurd. hesin, Bal. āsin (KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:193<sup>7</sup>). If so, Bal. āsin would show a palatalisation of the kind discussed in II 3.1.2.3.1. Alternatively, one might assume a protoform \*āśun(i)iā- for Zazaki, Kurdish and Balochi. The Kurd. and Bal. forms might also be derived from \*āśuan(i)iā- (cf. II 2.1.2.4), but this would have the disadvantage of separating them from the Prth. and Zaz. ones. Other protoforms from which Ir. cognates may be derived include \*aśuana- (> e.g. Osset. æfsæn "ploughshare") and \*āśuanā- (> e.g. Psht. ōspana, KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:193<sup>7</sup>). For previous discussions of the Ir. forms, cf. BENVENISTE 1935:132f., BAILEY 1979:487a, SKJÆRVØ 1994:271.

<sup>59</sup> *brēs- / brēst* is likely to go back to a formation with preverb, cf. p. 134f.

<sup>60</sup> purs-/pursit "ask" may have been borrowed from NP (cf. p. 147).

<sup>61</sup> EAL has the past stems *tusit*, *tōsit*, respectively, the attestation of which seems unclear. BMC has *tust*, *tōst*, DTB the corresponding EBal. forms *t*<sup>h</sup>*ust*, *t*<sup>h</sup>*ōsta*, the other sources do not note these verbs (SHG has only the present stems). The *-s-* has been analogically introduced into the past stems. On the etymology of this word, cf. HOFFMANN 1976/II:637<sup>25</sup>, KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:203.

<sup>62</sup> This verb (past stem *wapt*) is also found with metathesis: *wasp*- (ABG, BMC, EVM, NAWATA 1981:17, EAL: Raxšānī, Sarāwānī, Kečī), cf. p. 177, cf. the same phenomenon in Prth. *xusp*- (past stem *xuft*) "go to sleep" (Desmond Durkin-Meisterernst, personal communication), NP *xusp*- / *xuft*.

For Bal. s(s) resulting from certain consonant clusters, cf. II 2.1.2.4, 2.2.2.3.

Non-Pers. OIr. z > z (GEIGER 1891:431):<sup>63</sup>

- PIE \*g´(h):

  zān-64 "know" (Av. zanā-, NP dān- / dānist, Prth. zān- / zānād), zāmāt "son-in-law" (Av. zāmātar-, NP dāmād); mazan65 "big" (Av. maz-, MPM (NWIr. form)

  mazan "monster", OInd. mahánt-), mēz-66 "urinate" (Av. maēza-, NP mēz- / mēzīd);
- PIE \*z:<sup>67</sup>

  naz(z)(īk)<sup>68</sup> "near" (Av. nazdiiō, NP nazd(īk), Prth. nazd), mazg<sup>69</sup> "brain, marrow"

  (Av. mazga-, NP maġz).

<sup>63</sup> Since Balochi shows z for PIE \*g´(h), dap "mouth" must have been borrowed from Persian (certainly not from NP as Elfenbein 1990/II:38 assumes), although a fitting OP word is not attested (Geiger 1890:119, 1891:431). Bal. dap, Av. zafar/n- and NP dahān show a (dialectal?) substitution of f (> NP h) for \*bh vs. OInd. jámbha- "teeth", Greek γόμφος "nail, post" etc. (cf. Bailey 1979:351b). For Bal. dast "hand", cf. p. 292.

<sup>64</sup> Like jan, this verb has a 3sg. in -t ( $z\bar{a}nt$ , identical with the past stem  $z\bar{a}nt$ ).

<sup>65</sup> NP mih, Av. mas- do not belong here, but with Greek μακρός etc. (BARTHOLOMAE 1890:553).

<sup>66</sup> The past stem of this verb is  $m\bar{e}st$  (EAL),  $m\bar{e}zit$  (EAL),  $mi\bar{s}t$  (DTB, EAL: mainly Eastern). EBal. also has present stems  $mi\bar{z}$ - (DTB),  $m\bar{e}\bar{z}$ - (EAL: mainly Eastern)), the  $\bar{z}$  may be hypercorrect (z being perceived as "Pers. variant" of Bal. j / Ebal. z) or influenced by Psht.  $m\bar{e}z$ -.

<sup>67</sup> mēz (BMC, NAWATA 1981:9) "table" would be an additional example (NP mēz, Av. miiazda-, OInd. miyédha-, both latter words "sacrificial meal", note that the further connection to OInd. médha- is doubtful, EWAia II:356). However, since tables do not figure among traditional Baloch household items, the word will rather have been borrowed from those who introduced the object into Baloch society (cf. tēbal (FBB) "table"). mēj (ABG, EAL) could be (as suggested by ELFENBEIN 1985:234) its hypercorrect variant or (EAL 97) borrowed from Lhd. mēj. At least some Modern Ind. words may have been borrowed from Portuguese mesa (Jost Gippert, personal communication).

<sup>68</sup> For the suffix, cf. p. 163. There is a regular reduction of zd > z(z) (cf. II 2.2.2.1.2), e.g. muz(z) "wages", duz(z) "thief" (also duzd (EVM),  $duz(z)\bar{\imath}$  "theft" (DTB, FBB) and  $duz(z) - / duz(z)\bar{\imath}$  "steal") unless duz(z) has been borrowed from MP duz. With regard to this parallel, naz(z),  $naz(z)\bar{\imath}k$  could, but not necessarily has to, also be a loanword from Persian. muz(z) and duz(z) are not (pace GEIGER 1891:431) examples for \*z, but rather Pers. loanwords (otherwise they should have  $\check{z}$ , cf. Av.  $du\check{z}d\bar{a}h$ - "evildoing" (NARTEN 1986:286);  $m\bar{\imath}zda$ -, Prth.  $mu\check{z}d$ , cf. II 2.1.2.5.

<sup>69</sup> EAL; otherwise *muzg* "back of head" (SHG). The variant *majg* (EVM, EAL "brain"; SHG: "stone of a fruit etc.", EBal. (DTB) *mažg*) leads Moškalo (1991:29, 38f.) to assume that OIr. *z* may result in Bal. *j* (with *majg* as the only example). Although a special development of OIr. *zg* is possible, it does not seem necessary since *majg* may be interpreted (GEIGER 1891:426, ELFENBEIN 1985:234) as a hypercorrect substitution of *j* for perceived Pers. *z* (cf. e.g. NP *zan* vs. Bal. *jan* "woman" etc., cf. II 2.1.2.2), with *mažg* as its EBal. variant. For *mazg*, *magz*, cf. p. 86, 207.

### 2.1.2.4 OP $c < PIr. *\vartheta r$ , OP $s < PIr. *\acute{s}u$

In the case of these two consonant clusters, Balochi does not seem to go with other NWIr. languages, but with Persian, which reduces the cluster to a sibilant.

**PIr.** \* $\vartheta$ **r** > s(s) (GEIGER 1891:415, 430):<sup>70</sup>

- pus(s)ag "son" (Av.  $pu\vartheta ra$ -, Prth. puhr) and  $d\bar{a}s$  "sickel" (OInd.  $d\bar{a}tra$ -) may have been borrowed from MP pus, MP/NP  $d\bar{a}s$ , respectively;
- if  $\bar{a}pus$  "pregnant" (Av.  $apu\vartheta ra$ -, NP  $\bar{a}bistan$ , Prth. (with a different first member) bar-buhr) was borrowed (cf. MP  $\bar{a}bus$ ), it would have to be a very old loanword.

The following words do not have a direct Pers. counterpart, so that they are less likely to have been borrowed. This speaks for s(s) as the regular Bal. result of PIr. \* $\vartheta$ r.

- $\bar{a}s^{71}$  "fire" (Av. (obl.)  $\bar{a}\vartheta r$  vs. MP, Prth.  $\bar{a}dur$  from OIr. (Av.)  $\bar{a}tar$ -);
- pis(s) "father",  $m\bar{a}s$  "mother",  $br\bar{a}s$  "brother",  $z\bar{a}m\bar{a}s$  "son/brother-in-law" of some WBal. dialects<sup>72</sup> go back to the OIr. (Av.) obl. cases ( $pi\vartheta r$ -,  $m\bar{a}\vartheta r$  etc.) according to BARTHOLOMAE 1885:130, 133);<sup>73</sup>

A further example would be Br. *his*, *hīs*, *hēs* "ashes" if this comes indeed, as MORGENSTIERNE 1932:47 would have it, from Bal. \*ēs and if this goes back to \*āðria- (Psht. *ēre* etc.). Geiger's derivation of *nawāsag* "grandchild" from \*napāðra- fits with NP *nawāsa* (the better preform is (obl.) \*napāðr-, HÜBSCHMANN 1895:102f.), but not with the Bal. word, which has been borrowed from NP (HÜBSCHMANN 1890:559). For Bal. *nimāsag*, cf. p. 234, 303. MOŠKALO 1991:32 assumes that *s* for OIr. *ðr* is seen only in loanwords, citing *sai* "three" as example (for which see below). Not noting that the family terms *pis(s)* "father" etc. occur in some dialects only, MOŠKALO 1991:31 wrongly assumes that these words show a development of OIr. *t* (for which cf. II 2.1.1.1) > Bal. *s*, leaving the other examples for *ðr* > *s(s)* unexplained.

<sup>71</sup> āč is also used; it has probably been borrowed from NP ātiš, cf. p. 282.

<sup>72</sup> Raxšānī according to ELFENBEIN 1990/II:VIIff. The forms are found in BMC (Pakistani Raxšānī), NAWATA 1981 and BUDDRUSS 1988 (both Afghanistan Balochi) and EVM (Turkmenistan Balochi), cf. p. 250, 300ff.

<sup>73</sup> pit, māt, brāt, zāmāt of the remaining dialects come from the strong cases (OIr. pitar-, mātar-, brātar-, cf. p. 77f.). For the distribution and derivation of the corresponding MP and Prth. forms, cf. SIMS-WILLIAMS 1981:166ff.

duskīč "sister-in-law (spouse's sister)" may represent a metathesised form of duksīč<sup>74</sup> and is derived from \*duxθrī-čī- ("daughter" + a feminine suffix) by MORGENSTIERNE 1932:43.<sup>75</sup>

Note that there is no example for word-initial OIr.  $\vartheta r$ - since sai,  $sa\bar{e}$ ,  $s\bar{e}$  "three" (MP  $s\bar{e}$ , seh, NP sih, CNP se vs. Prth.  $hr\bar{e}$ ) is likely to be a loanword (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:78).

**PIr.** \* $\dot{\mathbf{s}}\mathbf{u} > \mathbf{s}$  (GEIGER 1891:430):<sup>76</sup>

In a NWIr. language one would expect PIr. \* $\pm$ û (Av. sp, OP s) to come out as sp. The two examples that could be adduced here are  $sp\bar{e}t^{77}$  (Av.  $spa\bar{e}ta$ -, OInd.  $\pm$ sveta-, Prth.  $tisp\bar{e}d$ ) "white" and tisped0 (Av. tisped0

There is some evidence for s as Bal. result of PIr. \*śu:

•  $s\bar{a}h$  "breath, life" which (GEIGER 1891:430f.) might belong to Psht.  $s\bar{a}h$ , Gabri  $s\bar{a}a$ , OInd.  $s\bar{a}a$ , unless it has been borrowed from Pashto or from Ind. (which might then also apply to Psht.  $s\bar{a}h$ , MORGENSTIERNE 1927:66);<sup>80</sup>

<sup>74</sup> This form is noted by SPOONER 1967:67, who writes *doksīč* with *-o-* representing the IrBal. pronunciation of /u/ (cf. II 3.2.4.2). For further discussion of this word, cf. p. 178.

<sup>75</sup> It seems that Judeo-NP <dwskyzh> (cited in MACKENZIE 1986:27) might be explained in the same way and that MPM *duxš* "maiden" may also belong here.

<sup>76</sup> GEIGER 1891:430 notes that "in isolated cases" of word-initial *sp*, a loss of *p* seems to have taken place. Moškalo 1991:25, 31, 37, 39, citing the examples *spēt* and *asp*, assumes Bal. *sp* < PIr. \*śu. Note that *āsin* "iron" is not to be adduced here (against GEIGER 1891:435), cf. p. 87.

<sup>77</sup> EVM, EAL, NAWATA 1981:37; otherwise sipēt, ispēt etc., for which cf. also p. 152.

<sup>78</sup> Also *haps* (GEB), *aps.*  $g\bar{o}r\bar{a}$  (FBB; from Ur.  $g^h\bar{o}r\bar{a}$ ) and  $b\bar{o}r$  (cf. p. 310) are also used. For further discussion of *asp*, cf. p. 158f.

<sup>79</sup> For the devoicing of final consonants in loanwords, cf. II 3.3.1.4.

<sup>80</sup> Elfenbein seems to assume (EAL 130) that the Ind. word (Lhd. *sāh* etc.) has been borrowed from NP where it does not seem to be attested, however.

- $s\bar{t}y$   $/s\bar{t}$  (DAMES 1881, HITTU RAM 1881, EAL) "swell" which according to GEIGER 1891:430 and BAILEY 1979:476a is a cognate of OInd.  $\dot{s}v\dot{a}ya$ -;
- *šiš* "louse" (NP *supuš*, *šipiš*, Av. *spiš*-), if existing, si might go back to a form with \*śu-; this reconstruction is supported by Wakhi *šiš* (MORGENSTIERNE 1927:69, STEBLIN-KAMENSKIJ 1999:30, 330), if there is no process of assimilation involved in the Wakhi word. The Bal. development could have been \*siš > *šiš* (for assimilations of this kind, cf. p. 180).

While the examples are not entirely convincing, in the absence of evidence for sp, one may assume that s is the regular outcome of PIr. \*su.

## PIr. \* $\acute{z}u$ (Av. zb) > ?

Another interesting sound cluster would be PIr. \* $\acute{z}$ u. The only example is  $zub\bar{a}n^{83}$  "tongue", which – like the cases for \* $\acute{s}$ u above – has a form similar to NP  $zab\bar{a}n$  (originally NWIr.)<sup>84</sup> in all contemporary WIr. languages. So there is no evidence which could be used here.

## 2.1.2.5 OIr. š, ž

OIr. š, ž, irrespective of their PIE origin, are preserved in Balochi.

 $\check{s} > \check{s}$  (Geiger 1891:425):

PIE \*s > PIr. š /{\*r, r, ŭ, u, ĭ, i, velars}\_ ("ruki"):
 nigōš- / nigōšt "listen" (Av. √gaoš, NP niyōš- / niyōšīd, Prth. niγōš- / niγōšād),
 mušk<sup>85</sup> "mouse" (NP mūš);

<sup>81</sup> Only reported by Elfenbein 1989:635. For additional cognates, cf. Skjærvø 1994 and Klingenschmitt 2000:202. The usual Bal. words for "louse" are  $b\bar{o}t$ ,  $b\bar{o}d$ .

<sup>82</sup> Bal. astal etc. "mule" (NP astar) is probably a loanword, cf. p. 158f., 161.

<sup>83</sup> In (predominantly) EBal. sources (ABG, DTB, GCD), *zawān* occurs, which may reflect borrowed NP *zabān*. For EVM *zuwān*, cf. p. 218.

Zazaki has a genuine form: zon, ziwan < zuwan, cf. Prth.  $iz\beta\bar{a}n^A$  DURKIN-MEISTERERNST p. 87 notes that the expected difference Prth. (zb) vs. MP (z) is not attested since MP has NWIr. forms.

<sup>85</sup> DTB, EAL also *mūšk*. GEIGER 1891:444 notes that the word is not distinguishable from a NP loanword (cf. MPZ <mwšk>, read *mušk* by MACKENZIE 1986:57). The contrast *u/ū* (\*muška- vs. \*mūš-) is likely to be inherited (EWAia II:363, 369f.).

PIE \*ks, \*kb, \*gs > PIIr. \*ćš:<sup>86</sup>

Attested Old Iranian always shows  $\check{s}$  here. However, according to KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:208ff., it is probable that the SWIr. outcome is s while  $\check{s}$  is the NWIr. one:<sup>87</sup>  $\check{s}ud$  "hunger" (OInd.  $k\check{s}ud^h$ -, YAv.  $\check{s}u\delta$ -, NP  $\check{s}uy$ , MP  $\check{s}uy$  and suy) shows that Balochi has  $\check{s}$ :

 $\check{sor}$  "salty earth" (NP  $\check{sor}$ , Prth.  $\check{sor}$  "salt desert",  $\check{soren}^{88}$  "salty") is the genuine NWIr. word and  $\check{sor}$  "salty" a loanword (cf. MP  $\check{sor}$ ); 89

čam(m) "eye" (OInd. cákṣ-us-, Av. čašman-, NP čašm) implies a stage \*čašm (cf. p. 126);

 $ka\check{s}^{90}$  "armpit" (OInd.  $k\acute{a}k\dot{s}a$ -, Av.  $ka\check{s}a$ -, NP  $ka\check{s}$ ) and  $ta\check{s}^{91}$  "adze" (Av.  $ta\check{s}a$ -, NP  $ta\check{s}$ , OInd.  $\sqrt{tak\dot{s}}$  "build (from wood)") may have been borrowed from NP (thus GEIGER 1891:453 for  $ka\check{s}$ )<sup>92</sup>, but could also be inherited;

 $mu\check{s}$ - "rub" might have been analogically modelled on the past stem  $mu\check{s}t$  (HÜBSCHMANN 1890:558, cf. Prth. ni-marz-/ni- $mu\check{s}t$  "make smooth", Av.  $mar\partial za$ -), which (if not borrowed from NP  $mu\check{s}t$ ) may be the Ir. cognate of either OInd.  $\sqrt{mr}$  "rub" or  $\sqrt{mr}$  "touch" (EWAia II:331). However,  $mu\check{s}$ - may also come from PIE \* $h_2$ mr $\acute{g}$ -s- (BARTHOLOMAE 1901:76) > PIIr. \*Hmr $\acute{c}$ s- > PIr. \*mr $\acute{s}$ s- > \*mr $\acute{s}$ -. 94

For other sources of Bal. š, cf. II 2.2.1.2, 2.2.1.4.1, 2.2.2.1.3, 2.2.2.3, 2.2.3.2.

<sup>86</sup> *guš*- "say" which is explained by HÜBSCHMANN 1890:558 as going back to \*uak-s- probably belongs to another root, cf. p. 219.

<sup>87</sup> This would imply that the OP dialect from which MP and NP are derived must have differed from attested OP in that it distinguished the product of PIE \*ks, kb, \*gs from regular s. For further discussion of the relevant Pers. words and the etymologies, cf. KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:208ff.

<sup>88</sup> A reading *šōrēn* (KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:208, DURKIN-MEISTERERNST 2004:320) is surely to be preferred to *šūrēn* in BOYCE 1977:85.

<sup>89</sup> Bal. *šōr* and its derivatives are cited by GEIGER 1891:431 from the early sources (DTB etc.), but not found elsewhere, the usual word for "salty" being *sōr*. The word may go back to PIIr. \*ćšaura-(BAILEY 1979:411b, KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:208). HENNING 1947:289 assumes that it has been borrowed from some substratum language.

<sup>90</sup> A compound of  $ka\check{s}$  with the demonstrative pronouns  $\bar{a}$  and  $\bar{e}$  might be seen in  $\bar{a}\check{s}k\bar{a}$  "on that side",  $\bar{e}\check{s}k\bar{a}$  "on this side", cf. p. 177 and BUDDRUSS 1974:28ff.

<sup>91</sup> For variants, cf. p. 216.

<sup>92</sup> If the variant *kašš* noted in EAL exists (all other sources have *kaš* only), the word would be likely to have been borrowed (cf. II 3.3.1.5).

<sup>93</sup> Morgenstierne, obviously unaware of Bartholomae's explanation, prefers to derive *muš*- (together with ambiguous Psht. *mušol* etc., cf. also MORGENSTIERNE 1973:92) from the Ir. cognate of OInd. √mrś. If this was the case, the present stems Prth. °*marz*-, NP *māl*- would come from a different root (i.e. the cognate of OInd. √mrj) than the past stem.

<sup>94</sup> For \*r and  $r\check{s} > \check{s}$ , cf. II 2.3.2 and 2.2.3.2, respectively.

GEIGER 1891:426 cites a number of examples in which  $\check{s}$  is assimilated to a following voiced consonant, thereby becoming  $\check{z}$ . Several cases involve an alleged assimilation  $\check{s}N > \check{z}N$ . With regard to the rule that in good examples  $\check{s}$  is assimilated to a following nasal (cf. II 2.2.2.2), Geiger's cases must be so young that the reduction was no longer operating. Most of them can indeed be shown to be loanwords. This assimilation process is therefore to be attributed to the post-Common Balochi era (cf. II 3.1.1.3). For an EBal. additional case of assimilation cited by Geiger, cf. p. 235.

### $\check{z} > \check{z}$ :

GEIGER 1891:426 only considers secondary cases of  $\check{z}$ , i.e. assimilations of the type discussed immediately above and in II 3.1.1.3 and the  $\check{z}$  of the Eastern dialects resulting from CBal.  $\check{j}$  in postvocalic position. However, it is possible that OIr.  $\check{z}$  (for its sources, cf. HOFFMANN/FORSSMAN 1996:102, 104) is preserved in some words:

- $d\bar{u}zah^{95}$  "hell" (Av.  $daoza\eta^v ha$ -, NP  $d\bar{o}zax$ , Prth.  $d\bar{o}zax$ , MP dusox, cf. also p. 227);
- dužman<sup>96</sup> "enemy" (NP dušman, Prth. dušmen) may show a secondary assimilation (cf. e.g. mēžmurg, cf. p. 178f.) of borrowed dušman. The Bal. outcome of OIr. (Av.) dušmanah-, dušmainiiu- might be expected to give †dum(m)an, but the morpheme boundary may have prevented the assimilation. If so, it could be compared to OAv. dužmanah- (vs. YAv. dušmanah-, HOFFMANN/FORSSMAN 1996:104) and show that žm was not reduced to m(m) as was šm (cf. II 2.2.2.2). There seems to be no second Bal. word with žN, all potential examples being loanwords, and with regard to šN > N(N), it seems at least equally likely that žm would have likewise assimilated<sup>97</sup> and that dužman has been borrowed from NP.
- $mu\check{z}$  (ABG, DTB) "mist, fog" may be connected with other Ir. words deriving from OIr. \* $mi\check{z}\bar{a}$  (for these, cf. GERSHEVITCH 1964a:90f., cf. also p. 229, 286).

<sup>95</sup> ABG; DTB  $d\bar{o}z\bar{i}$ . The variants  $d\bar{o}zah$  (SHG),  $d\bar{o}zak$  (EAL),  $d\bar{o}zax$  (DTB),  $d\bar{o}zix$  (BMC) have been borrowed from Persian (GEIGER 1891:448). It is not entirely impossible that  $d\bar{u}zah$  etc. has likewise been borrowed from NP, although a rather complicated combination of processes would have to be assumed, with NP  $d\bar{o}zax$  being made into hypercorrect  $d\bar{o}zak/x$  (replacing perceived "Persian" z by "Bal." z as if it came from OIr. z; z do z is found in EAL, but its existence does not seem to be sure); its EBal. variant would be z do z is found in EAL, but its existence does not seem to

<sup>96</sup> ABG, DTB, EAL; SHG *dužmin*. NP *dušman* (BMC, EAL), *dušmin* (SHG) is also used. For further discussion, cf. p. 193.

<sup>97</sup> Cf. the parallel assimilations of šN and žN in some variants of Sogdian (GERSHEVITCH 1954:58).

#### 2.1.2.6 OIr. h

With the exception of some dialects (cf. II 3.2.3.1), h is preserved in Balochi, including word-initial hu-, which gives NP xu-. For OIr. hu-, cf. II 2.2.1.5.4.

h > h (GEIGER 1891:423):<sup>98</sup>

- $ham^{99}$  "also" (Av., NP, Prth. ham),  $gwah\bar{a}r^{100}$  "sister" (Av.  $x^va\eta har$ -, NP  $x^w\bar{a}har$ , Prth.  $wx\bar{a}r$ );
- *hu-*: *huš-* / *hušt* "dry (verb, itr.)" (Av. √haoš, NP *xōš-* / *xōšīd*, MP *hōš-* / *hōšīd*, Prth. *huš-* / *hušād*<sup>101</sup>), *hušk* "dry" (NP *xušk*, Prth. *hušk*), *hūk*<sup>102</sup> "pig" (Av. *hū-*, NP *xūk*, MP *xūg*, Prth. *hūg*).

The loss of h in  $a\check{c}$  "of" (for further discussion, cf. p. 85) vs. OIr.  $ha\check{c}a$  goes back to MIr. times (cf. Prth.  $a\check{z}$ ) and may be attributed to sandhi phenomena.

For secondary h, cf. II 2.4.1.

<sup>98</sup> For Geiger's example hapt "7", cf. p. 81, for sāh "breath", cf. p. 90.

<sup>99</sup> This is again a word which may have been borrowed from NP, but might also be inherited (GEIGER 1891:444). The same applies to *jih*- "flee" (past stem *jist*), cf. NP *jah*- / *jast* (qualified as a loanword by GEIGER 1891:115), the etymology of which is not clear; HÜBSCHMANN 1895:50 doubts HORN's assumption (1893:94) of a relationship with OInd. √yas "boil" on semantical grounds.

<sup>100</sup> For discussion of this word, cf. p. 123.

<sup>101</sup> With regard to the Bal. verb, one might consider reading the Prth. itr. verb *huš- / hušād* (against BOYCE 1977 and DURKIN-MEISTERERNST 2000:83). The transitive verb with the appropriate degree of the root may be seen in MP *hōšāg* "warm wind" (Desmond Durkin-Meisterernst, personal communication), *hōšāgēn* "drying, withering". Parallels for *u* in a Prth. past stem are *xunād* (pres. *xun-* "sound", cf. p. 122) and *tuxšād* (pres. *tuxš-* "strive"). If so, one may assume that WIr. originally had itr. \*huš- / hušt and tr. \*hōš- / hušt (?). Since the meaning of the past stem is similar at least in terms of result ("became dry" and "made dry"), only one verb survived, its form being MP *hōš- / hōšīd*, NP *xōš- / xōšīd*, Prth. *huš- / hušād* and Bal. *huš- / hušt*, all itr. A present stem \*huš-(y)a- may also be seen in Osset., Sogd. and Khot. (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1989a:257).

EAL 68 considers Br.  $hu\check{s}$ - "burn" as "not related" to (i.e. not borrowed from) the Bal. word, probably because MORGENSTIERNE 1932:47 assumes that it might have been borrowed from some Ir. cognate of OInd.  $\sqrt{u}$ s "burn".

<sup>102</sup> For discussion of the EBal. form, cf. p. 227. OInd. *sūkará-* "boar" is likely to be a derivative of \*sū-ka- (EWAia II:738), a direct cognate of the Bal. and NP form.

#### 2.1.3 Old Iranian sonorants

#### 2.1.3.1 OIr. m, n

The OIr. nasals are preserved and are rather unproblematic.

 $m > m \text{ (GEIGER 1891:417):}^{103}$ 

- mič-<sup>104</sup> "suck" (NP maz- / mazīd), madag "locust, prawn" (Av. maδaxa-, NP maig<sup>105</sup>),
- $r\bar{o}mast^{106}$  "rumination" (OInd.  $romant^ha$ -),  $n\bar{e}m(ag)$  "half" (Av.  $na\bar{e}ma$ -, NP  $n\bar{e}m(ag)^{107}$ , Prth.  $n\bar{e}m^\circ$ ).

GEIGER 1891:416 notes that m is written <n> before labials (obviously in imitation of NP orthography), e.g.  $colon label{eq:condition} colon label{eq:condition} rumbag^{108}$  "to hurry",  $colon label{eq:condition} label$ 

<sup>103</sup> GEIGER's 1891:417 example  $z\bar{u}m$  "scorpion" which he (GEB 428) connects with Av.  $\sqrt{z}\bar{u}$ , OInd.  $\sqrt{j}\bar{u}$  "hurry" has no cognate with a similar meaning and/or suffix (cf. also p. 197, 242). The only derivative of this root in Modern Iranian seems to be Bal.  $z\bar{u}t$ , NP  $z\bar{u}d$  "quick" (EWAia I:580), for which cf. p. 142, 197. I cannot see how  $z\bar{u}m$  might be connected (as does EVM) with OInd.  $j\acute{a}mb^ha$ "teeth" (for Ir. cognates of this word, cf. p. 88 and BAILEY 1979:351b).

<sup>104</sup> The past stem of this verb is *mitk* (EAL, BMC), *mičit* (EAL). In Turkmenistan, *mēč*- (NAWATA 1981:17: *mič*-) / *mēt* is used (EVM, SOKOLOV 1956:80, BUDDRUSS 1988:78). According to HÜBSCHMANN 1895:98, the NP dialect forms mentioned in HORN 1893:219 show that the vocalism of Balochi which points to √\*mak is old (and not a palatalisation product of \*mač- according to the rules in II 3.1.2.3.1), thus NP *maz*- must stand for \*miz-. For possible cognates in other Ir. languages (e.g. Av. *maēkant*- "(water) coming out"), cf. BAILEY 1979:322b.

<sup>105</sup> NP *maig* may be derived from OIr. \*madika- (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:100), but also from \*madaka- (KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:203<sup>40</sup>), thus from the same form as Bal. *madag*.

<sup>106</sup> Thus DTB; SHG has *rōmust*. Morgenstierne 1938:537b suggests a protoform "\*raumąϑ + ta ?". The details of this formation as well as of OInd. *romant*<sup>h</sup>a- are not clear (EWAia II:470). It is interesting, however, that Balochi preserves this word of which there are otherwise only EIr. cognates (Morgenstierne 1938:537).

<sup>107</sup> Again, the Bal. word can be either genuine or borrowed (GEIGER 1891:444). In the latter case, the source must be MP since even Tajiki and Dari have  $n\bar{\nu}m(a)$ .

<sup>108</sup> The etymology is not clear. GEIGER's connection (1890:143) with Av. †ruma "running quickly" does not hold (BARTHOLOMAE 1890:553).

<sup>109</sup> For discussion of this word, cf. p. 82f.

n > n (GEIGER 1891:416):

- $ni\check{s}t^{110}$  "sat down" (NP, Prth.  $ni\check{s}ast$ ), EBal.  $nam\bar{a}\check{s}^{111}$  "prayer" (Av.  $n \ni mah$ -, NP  $nam\bar{a}z$ , Prth.  $nam\bar{a}\check{z}$ ),
- $zin^{-112}$  "seize" (Av.  $zin\bar{a}$ -), <sup>113</sup>  $dant\bar{a}n$  "tooth" (Av.  $dant\bar{a}n$ -, NP, Prth.  $dand\bar{a}n$ ),  $z\bar{a}n(uk)$  "knee" (Av.  $z\bar{a}nu^\circ$ , NP (NWIr. form)  $z\bar{a}n\bar{u}$ , Prth.  $z\bar{a}n\bar{u}g$ ), <sup>114</sup> sind- "break" (OInd.  $\sqrt{c^h}$ id:  $c^hin\acute{a}d$ -, Prth. °sind- / sist (GHILAIN 1939:83)), gind- "see" (Av.  $\sqrt{va\bar{e}d}$ : vinad-, OInd.  $\sqrt{vid}$ :  $vind\acute{a}$ -, Prth. wind- /  $wind\bar{a}d$ ). <sup>115</sup>

Some dialects tend to replace vowel + n by a nasalised vowel. Secondary n also occurs quite often (for both phenomena, cf. II 3.1.3.3).

#### 2.1.3.2 OIr. r

r > r (Geiger 1891:417):

OIr. *r* is likewise preserved in Balochi:

<sup>110</sup> BARTHOLOMAE 1890:553 underlines that this is a remarkable form, going back to zero-grade \*ni-šd-ta- while NP has the full grade. For the present stem *nind-*, cf. p. 127.

<sup>111</sup> This word (for the variant *nimāš*, cf. p. 193) corresponds to (unattested) SWBal. \*namāč and to NP *namāz*. Buddhist Sogd. *nm'cyw* suggests a derivation from \*namāčijam, acc. of a derivative of \*namāka- "praising" (KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:215).

<sup>112</sup> The past stem is *zit* (BMC, DTB, EVM, EAL: Raxšānī, Eastern), *zīt* (EVM, NAWATA 1981:17, EAL: Kečī, Coastal, Lāšārī), *zint*<sup>h</sup>- (DTB).

<sup>113</sup> Prth. <zys-> has been interpreted as an inchoative formation of this verb by HENNING 1937:90. The only attestation is <zysyd 'w hrw bzgyft> (M 284a V i 30-31) which might indeed be translated "Refrain (ipr.pl.) from all evil!" (information kindly provided by Desmond Durkin-Meisterernst). However, <zys-> may more conveniently be connected (thus GERSHEVITCH 1954:68) to Sogd. jyšt-, žyšt- "hated", Av. zōišnu-, zōiždišta- "(most) horrible", NP zišt "ugly, filthy" which are likely to be cognates of OInd. √hed "be angry" (EWAia I I:819). This solution is more plausible since a past stem zišt is attested in Parthian (M 92 V 16b and M 229 V i 9, Desmond Durkin-Meisterernst, personal communication), thus <zys-> may be read zēs- (Durkin-Meisterernst 2004:388a).

<sup>114</sup> The assumption by ELFENBEIN 1985:237 of  $z\bar{a}n$ ,  $z\bar{a}nuk$  being "found only in Ra[xšānī]" is not correct (cf. p. 297). It is possible that  $z\bar{a}n(uk)$  has been borrowed from Persian as ELFENBEIN 1990/II:165 assumes, but since the suffix does not have the same form as MP  $z\bar{a}n\bar{u}g$ , NP  $z\bar{a}n\bar{u}$ , it is perhaps more likely not to be a loanword.

<sup>115</sup> For further discussion of the examples involving nd, cf. p. 79.

- $r\bar{o}p$  / rupt "sweep" (Av.  $ur\bar{u}paiia$ -, NP  $r\bar{o}b$  / ruft),  $r\bar{e}k$  "sand" (NP  $r\bar{e}g$ ),  $var^{-117}$  "eat" (Av.  $v^ara$ -, NP  $v^ar$  / var- / va
- brāt "brother" (Av. brātar-, NP barādar, Prth. brād(ar)), gwahār "sister" (Av. x<sup>v</sup>aηhar-, NP x<sup>w</sup>āhar, Prth. wxār, cf. p. 99, 123).

Non-Pers. OIr. rz and rd are not changed to l as in NP and maybe in some Kurdish dialects. Geiger concludes the preservation of rz and rd in Balochi from the single example of zird "heart". In the meantime, some more examples have emerged:

#### *rd* > *rd* (GEIGER 1891:414):

- zird "heart" (Av. zərəδ(aiia)-, NP dil, Prth. zirδ, cf. p. 144);
- *šurd* "mild" (NP *šul* "weak"). 119

CBal. ard results in  $\bar{a}r / \bar{a}r$  (cf. II 3.1.3.5).

### **OIr.** (Av.) rz > rz (GEIGER 1891:414):

- burz<sup>120</sup> "high" (Av. bərəzant-, NP buland, Prth. burz),
- barzī "saddle bag" (Av. barəziš-, NP bāla),
- *marz* "clodcrusher" (NP *māla* "harrow"), *marz*-<sup>121</sup> "use a clodcrusher, stroke" (Av. *marəza*-, NP *māl* "rub", Prth. *ni-marz* "make smooth", cf. also p. 92);
- *arzun* "millet" might rather have been borrowed from NP *arzan* (for labialisation of vowels in loanwords, cf. II 3.3.2.3);
- in the loanword bazgar "farmer" (NP barzgar), rz is reduced to z by dissimilation to the following r. 122

<sup>116</sup> For discussion of the etymology, cf. p. 78.

<sup>117</sup> Like zān-, this verb has a 3sg. in -t (wārt, note the irregular vowel lengthening) which is identical with the past stem (EVM: also wart), cf. p. 122. For further cognates, cf. BAILEY 1979:504a.

<sup>118</sup> For discussion of the Kurd. development, cf. MACKENZIE 1961:77f.

<sup>119</sup> This example was kindly provided by Carina Jahani. Maybe it might be connected to OInd. *kṣudrá*-"tiny" (Nicholas Sims-Williams, personal communication), for Ir. *xš*- > Bal. *š*-, cf. II 2.2.1.2.

<sup>120</sup> GEIGER 1891:447 assumes that *burz* is a loanword since otherwise he would expect †barz. However, *ur* seems to be the regular product of PIr. \*r (cf. II 2.3.2.1).

<sup>121</sup> It is possible that marz- (past stem marzit) is a denominative of marz.

<sup>122</sup> A parallel case is the Georg. name *Buzmil* which, probably in the course of borrowing from \*Burz-mihr, first dissimilated the second r and then reduced the rz > z (GIPPERT 1993/I:140<sup>1</sup>). A

There is an occasional change of r > l, chiefly in loanwords, but also in a small number of other cases (cf. II 2.4.2). This change might be due to the influence of neighbouring languages.

## 2.1.3.3 OIr. *u*

### 2.1.3.3.1 Word-initial u

Word-initial u- is strengthened to g- or gw-, depending on the following vowel: 123

 $u - g - /_i, \bar{i}, \bar{e}$  (Geiger 1891:419):<sup>124</sup>

- *gind* "see" (OInd. √vid: *vindá*-, Av. √vaēd: *vinad*-, Prth. *wind* / *windād*, cf. p. 79), *gis* "house" (OInd. *víś*-, Av. *vīs*-, Prth. *wis*°), *gīn* "breath" (maybe < \*vi-āna-, OInd. *vyāná*-, cf. p. 106, 136);
- $g\bar{e}\check{c}^{-125}$  "sift" (OInd.  $\sqrt{\text{vic}}$ , Av.  $va\bar{e}\check{c}a$ -, NP  $b\bar{e}z$  /  $b\bar{e}xt$ , Prth. wixt(ag) "chosen" " $^{126}$ ),  $g\bar{e}\check{j}^{-127}$  "throw, swing" (OInd.  $\sqrt{\text{vij}}$  "move quickly", Av.  $va\bar{e}\check{j}a$  /  $^{\circ}vixta$ -, NP  $b\bar{e}z$  /  $b\bar{e}xt$ ),  $g\bar{e}t^{128}$  "willow tree" (Av.  $va\bar{e}ti$ -, NP  $b\bar{e}d$ ).

similar reduction is seen in the probably genuine *bus-tir*, the comparative of *burz* as given by NAWATA 1981:9 (the other sources have regular *burz-tir*), probably (also) in analogy to *kas-tir* "smaller" (from *kasān*), *mas-tir* "bigger" (from *mazan*). *mastir* is surely (as suggested by GERSHEVITCH 1964:87f.) assimilated from *maz-tir*, cf. BMC *maztir*.

<sup>123</sup> Note that BACK 1981:181 assumes that OIr.  $\mu$ - was changed to \*g $\mu$ - in MP first and then resulted in NP gu- or (via \*h) in NP b-, depending on the following vowel.

<sup>124</sup> Moškalo 1991:24 notes that there is also a singular case of OIr. vi- > Bal. gu-, i.e.  $gum\bar{a}n$  "doubt" (Av.  $v\bar{\imath}manah^\circ$ , cf. p. 232f.), but this word may easily be explained as a borrowing from NP (HÜBSCHMANN 1890:557).

<sup>125</sup> This verb is only known from SBal. sources (PIERCE 1874 – thence GEIGER 1890:123 and probably EAL – and SHG), hence the past stem is  $g\bar{e}tk < *g\bar{e}kt$  (for SBal. past stems in -tk, cf. II 3.2.2.1).

<sup>126</sup> The Prth. word probably belongs here (as implied by HENNING 1950:646), not to OInd. √vij (pace GHILAIN 1939:94). It corresponds in semantics to Bal. *gičēn* "chosen, selected", which is likely to belong to *gičin*- "select", however (cf. p. 85).

<sup>127</sup> The past stem is  $g\bar{e}tk$  (BMC, FBB, EAL),  $g\bar{e}(h)t$  (EAL: Raxšānī), and  $gixt^h$ - (DTB, EAL). The verbs  $g\bar{e}\check{c}$ - and  $g\bar{e}\check{j}$ - got mixed to a certain degree (ELFENBEIN 1985:230f., 1990/II:50). The same can be observed in other Ir. languages (cf. SIMS-WILLIAMS 1973:97, 1983a:359).

<sup>128</sup> Only DTB, EAL.

#### $u - gw - /a,\bar{a}$ (GEIGER 1891:413):

- *gwap*-<sup>129</sup> "weave, knit" (NP *bāf* / *bāft*, Prth. *waf*-), *gwaz* / *gwast* "cross over, pass" (OInd. √vah, Av. *vaza*-, Prth. *waz* "move swiftly"), *gwar* "breast" (Av. *varah*-, NP *bar*), *gwabz* "wasp", <sup>130</sup> *gwan* "pistachio" (Av. *vanā* "tree", NP *bun* "log, root"); <sup>131</sup>
- $gw\bar{a}r^{-132}$  "rain" (Av.  $v\bar{a}ra^{-132}$  (noun), NP  $b\bar{a}r^{-132}$  (Prth.  $w\bar{a}r^{-132}$ ),  $gw\bar{a}t$  "wind" (Av.  $v\bar{a}ta^{-132}$ , NP  $b\bar{a}d$ , Prth.  $w\bar{a}d$ ),  $gw\bar{a}nk^{133}$  "cry" (NP  $b\bar{a}ng$ );
- the word for "sister", *gwahār*, is treated as if it was derived from \*uahār, not from \*huahār (cf. p. 123).

It seems that CBal. gw- was pronounced guw-<sup>134</sup> as is indicated by the (probably post-CBal.) change gwa- > gu- which produces variants of most words just discussed, e.g. guz- "pass",  $guh\bar{a}r$  "sister" (cf. p. 219).

<sup>129</sup> The past stem of this verb is *gwapt*; for EBal. *guf*-, cf. p. 219. According to BARTHOLOMAE 1890:552 and HÜBSCHMANN 1890:557, there is an Ir. variant \*uaf- besides \*uab-. In several Ir. languages (among them Balochi), the forms which go back to \*uaf- may be explained as being analogical formations from the past stem \*uafta-. The only Ir. forms which undoubtedly go back to \*uab- are Av. nominal derivatives of the past participle \*ubda- and Psht. ūdəl "to weave" (for which cf. MORGENSTIERNE 2003:12).

<sup>130</sup> *gwabz* may either have been borrowed from MPZ *wabz* or go back to OIr. \*μabza- (cf. Av. *vaβžaka*-, Elfenbein 1990/II:56) from which Morgenstierne 1973a:212 also derives Wanetsi *wowuz* "moth". \*μabza- is ultimately derived from \*μabzha- < \*μobh-so- by Hoffmann/Forssman 1996:105. For *gwamz*, cf. p. 234.

<sup>131</sup> Cf. also p. 299. It is not clear to me why Rossi 1979:18 concludes from the Shughni cognates (MORGENSTIERNE 1974:90) that Bal. *gwan* cannot be connected with NP *bun*.

<sup>132</sup> The verb is probably a denominative from a noun "rain" (GHILAIN 1939:60). The formation of the verb must have taken place in pre-MIr. times, though, since both MP and Parthian have a verb wār-"rain". The respective past stems are independent secondary formations: MP has wārīd, wārist, NP bārīd. The Bal. past stem is gwart (BMC, EAL), gwārt (ELFENBEIN 1985:232), gwārit (EAL: Raxšānī). gwart exhibits a secondary ablaut vs. the present stem gwār-. GCD has, in addition to gwār-/gwārt, the variant gwar-/gwart with the present stem gwar- as an analogical formation to the secondary past stem gwart. The Prth. past stem wārād noted in DURKIN-MEISTERERNST 2000:83 seems to be liable to reinterpretation since it is not noted in DURKIN-MEISTERERNST 2004:336a, a past stem wārād being cited for wār- "rejoice".

<sup>133</sup> For further details about this word, cf. p. 137.

<sup>134</sup> The pronunciation of *gw*- approaches [gu-] according to GRIERSON 1921:406. ABG transcribes گوانگ "cry" as *gōāng* which points in the same direction (this variant of *gwānk* seems to be adjusted to NP *bāng* as far as the word-final consonant is concerned).

\* $ur - gur - (Moškalo 1991:28, 38):^{135}$ 

The only examples are

- gurk "wolf" (Av. vəhrka-, NP gurg, OInd. vŕka-),
- and the questionable gužg "root", for which cf. p. 132, 146.

It is not impossible that \*ur- resulted in gwar- first which gave gur- with the common reduction of gwa- > gu- (see above), but the only evidence for this assumption would be the variant gwark "wolf", which maybe does not exist (cf. p. 144).

It is not clear whether there is a variation  $gwa-/g\bar{o}$ - as assumed by GEIGER 1891:412. The existence of  $g\bar{o}n$  "pistachio" is doubtful (the only source is DTB),  $g\bar{o}har$  (DTB, EAL) "sister" is likely to show a contamination of  $gwah\bar{a}r$  with the common female name (NP borrowing)  $G\bar{o}har$  "jewel" (ELFENBEIN 1985:231), and two examples are not likely to contain \*gwa- at all:  $g\bar{o}n$  "with" cannot, as GEIGER 1890:124 assumes, belong to NP  $b\bar{a}$  (HÜBSCHMANN 1890:557), <sup>136</sup> and  $lag\bar{o}r$  "coward" may have been borrowed from Sindhi (EAL). Note, however, the variant  $g\bar{o}r\bar{a}nd$  "male sheep, ram" (BUDDRUSS 1977:13) for more common  $gwar\bar{a}nd$  and  $gur\bar{a}nd$  (NAWATA 1981:5). <sup>137</sup>

Bal. words not showing OIr.  $\mu > g(w)$ - must have been borrowed from (or influenced by) Persian. Among these, the following NP loanwords are especially noteworthy:

- bač(č), bačik(k) (MP waččag) "son" vs. genuine gwask "calf", 138
- bas(s) (MP, Prth. was) "enough" vs. genuine gwas (DTB, EAL),
- bahā (MP wahāg) "price",
- bahār (MP wahār) "spring",
- bahišt (MP, Prth. wahišt) "paradise",
- $b\bar{\imath}st$  "20" belongs to the group of numbers which must have been borrowed from Persian,

<sup>135</sup> It is not (against HORN 1893:202) because of the treatment of the initial  $\mu$ - that  $gu\check{s}nag$  (cf. Gabri  $va\check{s}ne$ , Prth.  $wa\check{s}end$ ) "hungry" (< \*\uniformingred\*\uniform \text{N} \in \uniform \text{VI} \text{COO}:204^{41}) must be a loanword from NP  $gu\check{s}na$ , but because of the preservation of - $\check{s}n$ - (for which cf. II 2.2.2.2).

<sup>136</sup> For an alternative etymology, cf. p. 181.

<sup>137</sup> The word looks as if it was borrowed from an Ind. language, although the source is not clear. Cf. also p. 214.

<sup>138</sup> A number of cognates in Ir. languages point to a protoform \*uasa- which would also suit the Bal. form (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:26). For more Ir. cognates and their preforms, cf. BAILEY 1979:274a. The precise derivation of NP *bačča* is not entirely clear. For *gwač(č)*, cf. p. 280.

• *gunās* "sin" instead of expected †ginās (Prth. *winās*) shows a contamination with NP *gunāh* (< MP *wināh*).

For the treatment of w- / v- in loanwords, cf. II 3.3.1.7.1.

### **2.1.3.3.2** Postvocalic *u*

 $aua - > \bar{o}$  (Geiger 1891:412):<sup>139</sup>

The OIr. sequence aua- gives the same result as OIr. auC (for which cf. II 2.3.3):

- the preverb OIr.  $a\underline{u}a$  can be assumed in  $\bar{o}\underline{s}t$   $/\bar{o}\underline{s}t\bar{a}t^{140}$  "stand" (Prth. awi- $\underline{s}t$  /awi- $\underline{s}t\bar{a}d$ ), the pronominal stem aua- in  $\bar{o}d^{141}$  "there" (Av.  $auua\delta a$ , Prth.  $\bar{o}\delta$ );
- cases of non-initial  $\bar{o}$  are  $n\bar{o}k$  "new" and the agentive suffix  $-\bar{o}k$ , e.g.  $w\bar{a}n$ "read" (cf. p. 122)  $\rightarrow w\bar{a}n\bar{o}k$  "student". 143

## MIr. $-au\# > au / \bar{o}$ :

OIr. aua which due to the MIr. loss of final syllables developed to a secondary diphthong \*au seems to result in Bal. au or  $\bar{o}$ :

<sup>139</sup> For the development of OIr.  $-a\mu a$ - in Middle Persian ( $a\mu a > \bar{o}$ ,  $a\mu a > awa$ ), cf. KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:201, 214f. It is possible that there was the same rule in Proto-Balochi, but there are no unambiguous Bal. cognates to the examples for OIr.  $-a\mu a$ - cited by Klingenschmitt (those which are attested might or must have been borrowed from NP). For Bal.  $z\bar{o}r$  "power" see below.

<sup>140</sup> For the -š- in this word, cf. p. 124.

<sup>141</sup> Also  $\bar{o}d\bar{a}$ , with the oblique ending which – among other things – expresses locality.

<sup>142</sup> GEIGER's remark (1891:412) that  $n\bar{o}k$  may have been borrowed (cf. MP  $n\bar{o}g$ ) is correct, but there is no evidence that is necessarily the case.

MP/Prth. nox "beginning" does not belong here, but with MP/NP naxust "first", both from \*naxua-(cf. EMMERICK 1971:61ff., WEBER 1994:112, cf. also BAILEY 1979:190, who doubts that Khot.  $n\bar{u}ha$ -"top" goes back to the same form).

<sup>143</sup> Choresmian has a suffix -'wk in similar function (cf. HENNING 1958:116). In Parthian, however, there seems to be no example of -\(\bar{o}g\) in agentive function. The only possible example <krwg> "craftsman" (read as \(kirr\bar{o}g\) and derived from OP \(k(a)rnuvaka\)- "stonemason" by HENNING 1945:480\) is probably a MP borrowing, cf. p. 134. The reading \(kirr\bar{o}g\) is confirmed by the derivative MP <krwgyh> "craftmanship" which is also written <qyrwgyy> (Desmond Durkin-Meisterernst, personal communication) and by the Arm. loanword \(k\bar{r}ogpet\) (for discussion of this word, cf. BAILEY 1934:512f.). Arm. \(karot\) "able" should rather not be adduced here since it is likely to derive from \(karem\) (aor. \(karac^ci\)) "be able" and is (pace H\(\bar{U}BSCHMANN\) 1897:166) probably not an Ir. borrowing (cf. KLINGENSCHMITT 1982:138f.).

- tau,  $t\bar{o}^{144}$  "you (sg.)" (Av. gen. tauua, NP tu, Prth.  $t\bar{o}$ ),
- jau, jo<sup>145</sup> "barley" (NP jau, Av. yauua-, Prth. yaw-ardāw "corn").

It is not clear whether tau and jau show a development specific for monosyllables; jau may also have been borrowed from Persian. However, it seems possible that MIr. -au may have the results au and  $\bar{o}$  varying by dialect.

# MIr. $-\bar{\mathbf{V}}u\# > -\bar{\mathbf{V}}$ :

It seems that MIr. word-final u after long vowel is lost:

- -ē (indef. article, cf. NP -ē, Av. aēuua-, Prth. ēw "one"),
- hurmā, hurmāg "date" (if not borrowed from NP xurmā like Arm. armav, cf. p. 156).

#### $\bar{a}ua > \bar{a}$ :

It has been stated that OIr.  $\bar{a}\mu a$  yields Bal. au or  $\bar{o}$ . The arguments are not convincing, though. GEIGER 1891:412 assumes that OIr.  $-\bar{a}\mu a$ - gives au, deriving naux (DTB),  $n\bar{o}x$  (LEWIS 1885) "bride" from \*nāuaka-. Since Psht.  $n\bar{a}we$  may be derived from \*nauakī-(MORGENSTIERNE 2003:59), the same protoform may apply to EBal.  $n\bar{o}x$  (for diphthongisation, cf. II 3.1.2.3.3). MOŠKALO 1991:25, 37 concludes from  $g\bar{o}k$  "cow" (Prth., NP  $g\bar{a}w$ ) and  $z\bar{o}r$  "power" (NP  $z\bar{o}r$ , Prth.  $z\bar{a}war$ ) that  $\bar{a}\mu a$  gives Bal.  $\bar{o}$ . Bal.  $g\bar{o}k$ , however, need not come form the same preform as  $g\bar{a}w$  and might derive from \*gau(a)-ka-,<sup>146</sup> and  $z\bar{o}r$  may have been borrowed from NP (thus GEIGER 1891:464) or come from \*zauar- (thus unlike Parthian) which is the preform of NP  $z\bar{o}r$  (KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:214).

 $\bar{a}w\bar{a}n$ , the oblique plural of the demonstrative pronoun  $\bar{a}^{147}$  "that", could point to the preservation of  $\bar{a}\mu a$ . The form need not be old, however, and might rather represent the stem  $\bar{a}$  + the ending  $-\bar{a}n$  added by means of a vowel-separating w. This assumption is strengthened by the fact that only the Raxšānī dialects show  $\bar{a}w\bar{a}n$ , the other dialects

<sup>144</sup> Another variant is ta.

<sup>145</sup> Geiger's variant  $j\bar{o}$  is only reported by PIERCE 1874. According to MORGENSTIERNE 1937:437,  $j\bar{o}$ - $h\bar{a}n$  "heap of grain" (SHG: "big jar") has been borrowed from NP and goes back to \*jau-dāna-.

<sup>146</sup> Cognates deriving from \*gau(a)ka- include NP gog "calf" (cf. BAILEY 1979:89b, EWAia I:479).

<sup>147</sup> GEIGER's 1890:112 assumption that  $\bar{a}$  is an imperfect notation for  $\tilde{a}$  (thus Geiger's EBal. sources) is not correct. The (probably borrowed NP) pronouns  $\bar{a}n/\tilde{a}$ ,  $\bar{t}n/\tilde{t}$  do occur in Balochi, too (cf. also p. 233, 238, 243).

having  $\bar{a}y\bar{a}n$  or  $\bar{a}h\bar{a}n$  (cf. ELFENBEIN 1990/II:VIIIff.), the last form being a clear case of a secondary formation with h in vowel-separating function (cf. II 2.4.1.3), so that the w and the y of the other forms are likely to be vowel separators as well (cf. II 2.4.3).

It thus seems that OIr.  $\bar{a}\mu a$  yields Bal.  $\bar{a}$ , although there are not many additional examples: 148

- $j\bar{a}h$ -,  $j\bar{a}y$  (GEB, EAL: Raxšānī), EBal.  $j\bar{a}$  "chew" vs. Psht.  $z\bar{o}w$  which is derived from \*-āuaia- (PIE  $\sqrt{*gieu}H$ ) in LIV p. 168; <sup>150</sup>
- $\bar{a}r$  "bring" seems to have been borrowed from NP (GEIGER 1891:407, HÜBSCHMANN 1890:555); however, with regard to Prth.  $\bar{a}war$ -, obviously an allegro form from OIr.  $\bar{a}$ -bara-, Balochi might perhaps have inherited this form from MIr.

No unambiguous examples have been found which would show the Bal. result of OIr.  $a\mu\bar{a}$ ,  $p\bar{a}k^{151}$  "pure" being possibly borrowed from NP  $p\bar{a}k$ . Parthian preserves  $a\mu\bar{a}$  ( $paw\bar{a}g$  "pure",  $paw\bar{a}z$ - "purify",  $aw\bar{a}^\circ$  "thus", cf. SIMS-WILLIAMS 1990:11). There is a singular contraction of EBal.  $saw\bar{a}$  "you (pl.)" (vs. SWBal.  $saw\bar{a}$ , cf. p. 126, 232f.) in its variant  $saw\bar{a}$ , presumably an allegro form since e.g. EBal.  $saw\bar{a}$  vs. SWBal.  $saw\bar{a}$  "bow" does not show the same contraction.

## u after other vowels:

With regard to postvocalic u in other contexts, the evidence is not clear:

- $p\bar{l}g$  "fat" (NP  $p\bar{l}h$ , Av.  $p\bar{l}uuah$ -, Prth. fra- $b\bar{l}w$  "fat, stout") would show loss of u, 152
- while in  $\bar{e}wak^{153}$  "alone" (Av.  $a\bar{e}uua$ -, NP yak "one", Prth.  $\bar{e}wag$  "alone"), the u has been preserved.

<sup>148</sup> The other NP examples of  $\bar{a}\mu a > \bar{a}$  (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:168) are not attested in Balochi. For the Bal. cognate of NP  $siy\bar{a}h$  "black", Av.  $sii\bar{a}uua$ -, cf. p. 129.

<sup>149</sup> The past stems are EBal. *jāθ*- and, with secondary past stem suffix -*it*, *jā*(*y*)*it* (DTB, EAL: Raxšānī, Eastern), *jāhit* (BMC, EAL: Coastal, Kēčī, Eastern), cf. also p. 109f.

<sup>150</sup> BAILEY 1979:405a assumes \*jaui- and a connection with Av. √gah, but this seems to be unfounded.

<sup>151</sup> According to KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:212f., the preservation of -k in NP  $p\bar{a}k$ ,  $n\bar{e}k$  "good" and yak "one" shows that intervocalic u was not yet lost completely in MP. For Bal. yak(k), cf. p. 105.

<sup>152</sup> A parallel case would be  $j\bar{\imath}$ - (no past stem noted) "live" (Prth.  $\bar{z}\bar{\imath}w$ - /  $\bar{z}\bar{\imath}w\bar{a}d$ , NP  $z\bar{\imath}y$ - /  $z\bar{\imath}st$ , OInd.  $\sqrt{j}\bar{\imath}v$ ) which is, however, only reported by MAYER 1910 and might be a loanword (cf. Ur.  $j\bar{\imath}$ - $n\bar{a}$ ).

<sup>153</sup> ELFENBEIN 1985:229 assumes that the correct form is *haiwakk*, the reason for which is unclear to me. BMC has  $(h)\bar{\imath}wakk$  with secondary h- and dialectal  $\bar{e} > \bar{\imath}$  (cf. II 3.1.2.3.2). For NP yak, see above, for -ak(k), cf. II 2.4.4.1.

The occasional change of w to m mentioned by GEIGER 1891:417 seems to be a hypercorrect reversal of the EBal. change m > w (cf. II p. 232f.). For OIr.  $\mu$  + other consonants, cf. II 2.1.2.4, 2.2.1.5, 2.2.3.4, for au /\_C, cf. II 2.3.3.

## 2.1.3.4 OIr. *i*

### 2.1.3.4.1 Word-initial i

#i - j - 154

- *jau* "barley" (Av. *yauua*-, NP *jau*, cf. p. 102), *jug*, EBal. *jōg*<sup>155</sup> "yoke" (NP *jug*, Prth. *yōg*), *jwān* "young, good" (Av. *yuuan*-, NP *jawān*, Prth. *yuwān*, cf. p. 218) may have been borrowed from NP; *jantar*<sup>156</sup> "mill" (NP *jandar*) may have been borrowed from Ur. *jantr(a)* (EAL 73); *jōd* "man" might have been borrowed from Ur. *jō(d)d*<sup>h</sup>ā "warrior";
- more reliable examples are: jātūg "sorcerer" (Av. yātu-, NP jādū), jitā<sup>158</sup> "separate" (Av. yūta-, NP judā, Prth. yud), juz(z)- / juz(z)it<sup>159</sup> "move" (NP jōy-/ just, MP Psalter <ywd>, Prth. yōz- / yušt, Av. √yaoz).

<sup>154</sup> GEIGER 1891:425 was not yet sure about this development, but it seems quite clear that it takes place in Balochi as it does in NP and most other Modern WIr. languages. – j̄ō "river" is probably not to be adduced here, since it is rather a borrowing from NP j̄ō(y), as a disyllabic form might be expected in Balochi (cf. OP yauviyā- "canal", OInd. yavyā- "stream"), although there is no parallel case. For variants, cf. p. 154, 203. – j̄agar "liver" (cf. p. 204) must indeed be a NP loanword (cf. Av. yākar-, OInd. yákrt-) as GEIGER 1891:419, 425 cautiously assumes.

<sup>155</sup> The SWBal. word may have been borrowed from NP, the EBal. one (DTB, EAL) from Urdu.  $\bar{o}$  of MPM  $j\bar{o}g$  "pair" is confirmed by Georg. jog- "pair, group" (Jost Gippert, personal communication).

<sup>156</sup> For variants, cf. p. 195. DTB jathir (with loss of nasal) might point to the word being borrowed since postvocalic stops are changed to fricatives in Eastern Balochi (cf. II 3.2.1.1.1). It is also possible, though, that the loss of the nasal is such a recent phenomenon that the stop has not been changed (yet), cf. p. 180f. jantar is a handmill consisting of two stones between which the grain is ground (cf. the photo in BARKER/MENGAL 1969/I:178).

<sup>157</sup> This word is in fact an Ind. borrowing in all Ir. languages (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:50).

<sup>158</sup> The  $-\bar{a}$  might have been attached to the word due to influence from NP and/or as an obl. ending, since the obl. is also used as a local case (e.g.  $gis-\bar{a}$  "at home",  $\check{s}ap-\bar{a}$  "at night").

<sup>159</sup> In ABG, the orthography  $-\dot{\omega}$  is used, obviously assuming that this is an instance of dialectal z for EBal.  $\delta <$  CBal. d (maybe implying a popular etymology with NP  $jud\bar{a}$  "separated"). For Ir. and other cognates, cf. BAILEY 1979:20a and LIV p. 315. HORN's 1893:94 etymology of NP justan as belonging to OInd.  $\sqrt{yud^h}$  "fight" is rejected by HÜBSCHMANN 1895:50 for semantic reasons. Maybe ABG's  $j\bar{o}z\bar{a}$  "emotion" also belongs here.

Pointing in the same direction is the fact that most of the words beginning with y- are obviously loanwords, chiefly from NP, e.g.  $y\bar{a}zdah$  "eleven", yak(k) "one",  $yat\bar{u}m$  "orphan" (NP-Ar.), yal "brave, strong" (NP-Turk.). It is probable that the remaining words with y- have been borrowed as well, e.g.  $y\bar{a}t$  "memory" (pace GEIGER 1891:413) which is a case of devoicing of the final consonant in a loanword (vs. NP  $y\bar{a}d$ ).

## 2.1.3.4.2 Word-internal i

 $Cii\ddot{a} > C\bar{i}$  (cf. Geiger 1891:408):<sup>162</sup>

There are not many examples for this reduction:

- $z\bar{\imath}(k)$  "yesterday" (NP  $d\bar{\imath}$ - $r\bar{o}z$ , OInd.  $hy\acute{a}s$ );
- EBal.  $j\bar{i}g$  "bow string" (< \* $j(i)i\bar{a}$ -ka-); <sup>163</sup>
- $g\bar{i}n$  "breath" (< \*uiiana- (GERSHEVITCH 1998:120ff.) or \*uiiāna-, cf. p. 136);
- the suffix  $-\bar{\imath}k$  seen in e.g.  $zam\bar{\imath}k$  "field",  $\check{s}ud\bar{\imath}k$  "hungry" may come from \*-iia-ka- as does MP  $-\bar{\imath}g$  (SALEMANN 1901:272). 164

As Prth. and MP  $-\bar{\imath}g$  have also been derived from \*-iia-ka-, one may assume that the change OIr.  $iia > \bar{\imath}$  is common to Western MIr. as a whole. On the other hand,  $n\bar{a}k\bar{o}$  "uncle" (vs. Av.  $nii\bar{a}ka$ -, OP  $niy\bar{a}ka$ - "grandfather", NP  $niy\bar{a}$  "ancestor", Prth.  $niy\bar{a}g$ ) shows a loss of OIr. i.

Several explanations are possible, for example:

<sup>160</sup> For  $\bar{e}wak$ , the Bal. outcome of \*aiuak-, cf. p. 103. NP yak shows an irregular preservation of -k which has been explained (KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:213) as being due to a reflex of \*-u- (\*aiuak- > \*ēhák- > \*ēáhk). A similar development occurs in NP  $n\bar{e}k$  "good, fine" and  $p\bar{a}k$  "pure", cf. p. 103.

<sup>161</sup> Cf. II 3.3.1.4. For cognates, cf. BAILEY 1979:308a.

<sup>162</sup> Moškalo's example (1991:22)  $ma(h)\bar{\iota}$  (probably a misprint for  $m\bar{a}h\bar{\iota}$ ) "fish" is not a good one since it has been borrowed from NP (cf. p. 136).

<sup>163</sup> This EBal. word is found in DAMES 1881, DTB and GCD. EAL is the only source which has the corresponding SWBal. form  $j\bar{\imath}g$ . EAL notes "bodice of a woman's blouse" as second meaning. If SWBal.  $j\bar{\imath}g$  (found in FBB and SHG in the meaning "shirt opening, embroidered part of a woman's garment", cf. the photo in SHG) is indeed the same word as  $j\bar{\imath}g$  "bowstring" (as EAL seems to imply), the semantics might have developed via "bow" > "circle" > "collar". If the variant  $j\bar{\imath}g$  exists (only in EAL and MORGENSTIERNE 2003:105), it might be a case of lowering (cf. II 3.1.2.3.2).

<sup>164</sup> For further discussion of  $-\bar{\imath}g$ , cf. p. 121, II 2.4.4.1.

<sup>165</sup> It might already have operated in Old Persian, cf. HOFFMANN 1976a:637.

<sup>166</sup> For semantic details, cf. p. 310, for variants, cf. p. 166, 201. For nak(k) "(great)grandmother" and  $nak\bar{o}$  "old", cf. p. 209.

One might say that OIr. ia gives Bal.  $\bar{\imath}$  while OIr.  $i\bar{a}$  may be treated differently (thus MošKALO 1991:22). This assumption presents the difficulty that one would have to derive  $j\bar{\imath}g$  from \*jia-ka- $^{167}$  while no \*jia(°)- is otherwise found in Ind. or Iranian.  $^{168}$ 

GEIGER 1891:408 gives a rule of OIr.  $i\bar{a} > \text{Bal } \bar{\iota}$ . This opens the possibility of deriving  $j\bar{\iota}g$  from \*jiā-ka- as attested in OIr. and OInd. (cf. Av.  $jii\bar{a}$ -, OInd.  $jy\bar{a}$ -,  $jy\bar{a}k\bar{a}$ -), and of deriving  $g\bar{\iota}n$  "breath" from \*uiiāna- (cf. OInd.  $vy\bar{a}na$ - "one of the vital airs", note that no OInd. †vyana- is attested). If so, one needs a special rule to account for Bal.  $n\bar{a}k\bar{o}$ , e.g. assuming a change of word-initial OIr. #ni > Bal. n-. 170

Using an idea advanced by HÜBSCHMANN 1899:21 for MP, one might suggest that  $Cii\bar{a}$  gives  $\bar{i}$  in Balochi<sup>171</sup> while in the context  $Ci\bar{a}$ , the i is lost. The first part of the rule is supported by Av.  $jii\bar{a}$ -, OInd.  $jy\hat{a}$ - and  $hy\hat{a}s$  being read  $jiy\hat{a}$ - and  $hiy\hat{a}s$  (cf. KORN 1998:127ff.) and by the adjective suffix going back to PIIr. \*-iia- (cf. BALLES 1997). For Bal.  $n\bar{a}k\bar{o}$ , one would have to assume a protoform \*niāka- (not \*niiāka-).

<sup>167</sup> This idea seems to go back to GEIGER 1891:408.

<sup>168</sup> The short vowel seen in the Av. hapax *jiia. jatāŋhō* "propelled by the bowstring" is likely to be due to a secondary phenomenon, i.e. to the dot separating the compound into two words and the subsequent application of the YAv. shortening of word-final vowels (DE VAAN 2003:43). As this shortening only takes place in polysyllabic words, it also shows that *jiia*° has two syllables.

<sup>169</sup> His only example for  $i\bar{a} > \bar{\imath}$  is  $paj\bar{\imath}$  (SHG  $paj\bar{\imath}g$ ) "together with" besides  $pajy\bar{a}$  "id.".  $paj\bar{\imath}$  need not go back to  $pajy\bar{a}$ , though, but may be a formation with the suffix  $-\bar{\imath}(g)$ . GEIGER 1890:140 interprets (DAMES 1881, HITTU RAM 1881)  $pajy\bar{a}$ ,  $paj\bar{\imath}$  "together with" as  $pa + j\bar{a}$  "place". However, such a phrase might be expected to mean "instead of" as does  $ba-j\bar{a}-\bar{e}$  (FBB, borrowed from NP), so that some other explanation seems to be required.  $pajy\bar{a}$  may be the oblique case of  $paj\bar{\imath}$  since many postpositions are oblique cases of nouns (cf. V 1.5).

<sup>170</sup> GEIGER 1891:435 cites nākō as an example of word-internal loss of OIr. i.

<sup>171</sup> This would of course only apply to old \*iia (vs. the loanword gābān "desert", cf. p. 279).

 $-aia - > \bar{e}$ ? (GEIGER 1891:411):<sup>172</sup>

Parallel to the change of  $aua > \bar{o}$ , one may assume that OIr. -aia- comes out as Bal.  $\bar{e}$ , although there are no unambiguous examples:

- it is not absolutely clear how the causative suffix  $-\bar{e}n$  came into existence (SUNDERMANN 1989b:151), but it is likely to go back to a formation with -aia-, probably \*-aia-na- (HENNING 1934:212). Since it is an innovation of MP not occurring in Parthian (apart from a few instances which may be loanwords, cf. DURKIN-MEISTERERNST p. 155), Balochi might have taken it over from Persian. 173
- zird "heart" (Prth.  $zir\delta$ ) is cited as  $zird\bar{e}$  in older sources which might go back to MIr. -ai, OIr. -aia-, cf. Av.  $z \partial r \partial \delta aiia$ -, OInd.  $h \hat{r} daya$ -, with subsequent reinterpretation of  $-\bar{e}$  as the indefinite article (cf. p. 102, 144).

The cases of OIr. aia > Bal. ai noted by GEIGER 1891:411 may be explained otherwise: the EBal. causatives in -ain- probably correspond to the double causatives  $-\bar{a}\bar{e}n$ - of other dialects<sup>174</sup> which are likely to be secondary combinations of  $\bar{a}$  and the causative suffix; other variants with ai of words which usually exhibit  $\bar{e}$  noted by one or the other of Geiger's sources are too marginally attested to build any assumption on them.<sup>175</sup>

## ahia > ai?

The cases showing this context are

- $\check{c}e^{176}$  "which, what" (Av. gen.  $\check{c}ahiia$ , NP  $\check{c}i$ , Prth.  $\check{c}\bar{e}$ ),
- kai<sup>177</sup> "who" (Av. gen. kahiia, NP ki, Prth. kē),

<sup>172</sup> Geiger's examples  $par\bar{e}r\bar{i}$  and  $\bar{a}d\bar{e}nk$  "mirror" (the only example adduced by Moškalo 1991:23 for  $a\dot{i}a > \bar{e}$ ) probably do not belong here since it is not sure that there was a sequence \*-aia- in the preform of  $\bar{a}d\bar{e}nk$  (cf. p. 79); for  $par\bar{e}r\bar{i}$ , see below.

<sup>173</sup> The original  $\bar{e}$  quality of the vowel in the caus. suffix cannot be seen in NP and must be inferred from other Ir. languages (e.g. Balochi) since  $\bar{e}$  gives  $\bar{\iota}$  in front of a nasal in NP (HORN 1901:26).

<sup>174</sup> An example of such a causative is (FARRELL 1990:49) ras- "arrive" (itr.)  $\rightarrow ras\bar{e}n$ - "cause to arrive, transport"  $\rightarrow ras\bar{a}\bar{e}n$ - "make someone transport somebody else".

<sup>175</sup> For diphthongisation, cf. II 3.1.2.3.3.

<sup>176</sup> This is the variant found in all SBal. and WBal. sources. EBal. sources have  $c\bar{t}$  (DTB  $c\bar{t}ih$ ) which is also found in addition to  $c\bar{t}$  in some other sources; it might show the influence of the adjective suffix  $-\bar{t}$  (cf. II 2.4.4.1) and of  $c\bar{t}$  "thing" (a variant of  $c\bar{t}$ ).

<sup>177</sup> kai is used in all dialects. SHG has  $ka\bar{\imath}$  (also in EAL) and  $ka\bar{e}$ , probably indicating the same thing as kai of the other sources.  $k^h\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$  (DAMES 1881:24) is likely to be an error for  $k^ha\bar{\imath}$  (thus DTB).

• gen.sg. ending -ai (WBal.),  $-\bar{e}$  (SBal.),  $-\bar{t}^{178}$ , -a, - $\varnothing$ . 179

Judging from  $\check{c}\bar{e}$ , Moškalo 1991:23, 37 assumes that OIr. -ahia gives the same result as OIr. aia, i.e.  $\bar{e}$ . This would correspond to the development stated for MP (Salemann 1901:272) and Parthian (Rastorgueva/Molčanova 1981a:164), but it leaves kai and the variants of the gen.sg. ending unexplained. It thus seems possible to assume that the Bal. outcome of OIr. ahia is ai and  $\bar{e}$  depending on the dialects, parallel to the development assumed for MIr.  $-a\mu$  (cf. p. 101f.). This implies that the gen.sg. ending can be derived from the Old Iranian genitive ending (thus Morgenstierne 1948:257, 259). The consistent  $\bar{e}$  of  $\check{c}\bar{e}$  might be attributed to the influence of the demonstrative pronoun  $\bar{e}$ .

### $-\bar{a}ia->\bar{a}$ ?

GEIGER 1891:411 assumes that OIr.  $\bar{a}ia$  is reduced to Bal. ai. In his examples haik "egg" (also  $h\bar{a}ik$ ,  $h\bar{e}k$ , haig,  $\bar{a}ig$ ,  $\bar{a}yag$ , cf. NP  $x\bar{a}ya$ ),  $s\bar{a}'ig$  "shadow" (also  $s\bar{a}hig$ ,  $s\bar{a}yig$ ,  $s\bar{a}\bar{i}$ ,  $s\bar{a}yag$ , sai, sayag, sai, cf. NP  $s\bar{a}ya$ , OInd.  $c^h\bar{a}y\dot{a}$ -) and  $s\bar{a}ii$  "comes" (also  $s\bar{e}ii$ ,  $s\bar{e}ii$  (FBB), see also below),  $s\bar{a}ii$  has indeed been shortened, but the outcome obviously depends on the dialect. Moreover, there may be peculiar morphological processes involved:  $s\bar{e}ii$  (cf. p. 156f.) and  $s\bar{a}'ig$  with variants can be loanwords from NP, and the processes resulting in  $s\bar{e}ii$  and variants are not quite clear. So if the examples fit here at all, the shortening of  $s\bar{e}ii$  seems to be a post-CBal. phenomenon. sai "three" (also  $s\bar{e}ii$ ,  $s\bar{e}ii$ 

<sup>178</sup> The gen.sg. ending  $-\bar{\imath}$  is found in the WBal. dialects of Turkmenistan and Afghanistan on personal names and for  $xud\bar{a}$  "God" (cf. e.g. SOKOLOV 1956:63, BUDDRUSS 1988:48). A gen. ending  $-\bar{\imath}$  also appears on the sg. personal pronouns.

<sup>179</sup> The endings -a and  $-\emptyset$  are found in EBal. In addition,  $-\bar{e}$  and  $-\bar{\iota}$  are found in these dialects; besides these, adjective formations  $(-\bar{e}g, -\bar{\iota}g)$  are used (GILBERTSON 1923:19ff.).

<sup>180</sup> The "genitives" in  $-\bar{\imath}$  are likely to be originally adjective formations. The origin of the EBal. gen. endings -a and  $-\varnothing$  is not clear. For more discussion, cf. KORN (frthc. 2).

<sup>181</sup> For the attestation, cf. p. 87. According to MORGENSTIERNE 1932:50, this word is "possibly borrowed".

<sup>182</sup> This form is the 3sg. pres. of  $\bar{a}y$ - "come". k- is a prefix of the present tense occurring in some verbs beginning with vowels. The personal endings differ quite markedly depending on the dialect.

<sup>183</sup> Conversely, it seems that a shortening  $\check{a}ya > \check{a}i$  is typical for loanwords (cf. p. 283).

The evidence for a possible change  $\bar{a}ia > \bar{e}$  is not convincing either:

- MORGENSTIERNE 1932:50 assumes that Br.  $s\bar{e}x\bar{a}$  "shadow, ghost" has been borrowed from Bal. \*sēkā which could be the genuine Bal. word for "shadow" (with  $s\bar{a}'ig$  etc. borrowed from NP, see above). It is, however, not sure if Bal. \*sēkā ever existed, and the Br. word might also have been borrowed from Si.  $s\bar{e}ya$ .
- The most probable etymology of  $par\bar{e}r\bar{t}$  "the day before yesterday" is \*para-aiar-(GERSHEVITCH 1964:81), and  $par\bar{e}r\bar{t}$  could therefore be an example for  $-\bar{a}ia->\bar{e}^{184}$ , but it can as well have been borrowed from NP  $par\bar{e}r$ . The variants  $pair\bar{t}$  (SHG),  $p\bar{e}r\bar{t}$  (FBB, EAL: Eastern, Coastal, Kēčī) seem to be derived from  $par\bar{e}r\bar{t}$  by haplology (GEIGER 1890:140 also notes the form  $pair\bar{e}r\bar{t}$ ).

In the absence of trustworthy counterexamples, one might postulate a loss of i in the sequence  $-\bar{a}ia$ - (Moškalo 1991:21, 35)<sup>185</sup> parallel to the loss of u in  $\bar{a}ua$  (cf. p. 102f.). This would mean that  $s\bar{a}h$  "shadow" (with hypercorrect -h) and  $\bar{a}$ -murg<sup>186</sup> "egg" are the genuine variants (note that  $s\bar{a}h$  and  $\bar{a}$ murg might not be so easily explained as loanwords as the variants  $s\bar{a}'ig$ ,  $h\bar{a}ik$  etc. discussed above).

A change  $\bar{a}_{i}a > \bar{a}$  might also explain the infinitives with  $-\bar{a}$ - in Eastern Balochi (cited by GEIGER 1891:407 and GEIGER 1890 q.v.) where the other dialects show (-) $\bar{a}_{i}$ ya-:

- $\bar{a}g$  "to come" (other dialects  $\bar{a}yag^{187}$ , 1sg.  $k-\bar{a}n$  (otherwise  $(k-)\bar{a}y\tilde{a}$  etc.),
- jāġ "to chew" (SWBal. jāyag, cf. p. 103),
- $z\bar{a}\dot{g}$  "to give birth" (SWBal.  $z\bar{a}yag$ ), <sup>188</sup>

Lāšārī), yāxt (EAL: Sarāwānī).

<sup>184</sup> GEIGER 1891:411 assumes a preform (Av.) \*parō.aiara- and considers this an example for  $aia > \bar{e}$ .

<sup>185</sup> Moškalo 1991:21 (\*aya is obviously a misprint for \*āya, cf. 1991:35) assumes this change on the basis of *šāh* "king" (cf. p. 81) and *warnā* "young" (cf. p. 278), which are both loanwords, however.

<sup>186</sup> ā-murg is a compound with murg "bird" (for which cf. p. 147). The Ir. words for "egg" most probably go back to \*āia- (SCHINDLER 1969:160), for further discussion, cf. p. 156f.

<sup>187</sup> This is the Coastal, Kēčī and Raxšānī form according to EAL. Other variants are yāy- (EAL: Sarāwānī, Lāšārī), āh- (EAL: Eastern); in some dialects, the present tense shows the prefix k-, thus kāy- (BMC, FBB), kā- (1.sg. khān DTB). The 3sg. has the shortened form kait etc., see above. NP has āy-, too, whereas Prth. has ās- which is probably from the inchoative stem \*ā-i-sa- (Henning apud GHILAIN 1939:49<sup>10</sup>, cf. also WEBER 1970:84f. for further discussion).

This verb has a suppletive past stem \*ā-ga-ta > \*ākta (cf. Prth. āyad, for further discussion, cf. p. 185 and the subchapters of II 3.2): ātk (BMC, EAL: Kēčī, Coastal, Eastern), atk (FBB), āxt (DTB, EAL: Eastern), āth (BMC, EAL: Raxšānī), yātk (EAL:

<sup>188</sup> The past stem is  $z\bar{a}t$ . NP has the NWIr. forms (identical with Prth.)  $z\bar{a}y$ - /  $z\bar{a}d$ . Parthian shows transitive and intransitive use of the present stem  $z\bar{a}y$ -, which derives from an intransitive formation

•  $g\bar{a}\dot{g}$  "have sex" (SWBal.  $g\bar{a}yag$ ). 189

The -y- seen in the SWBal. present stems may either have been preserved – which would make the change  $\bar{a}ia > \bar{a}$  an EBal. phenomenon – or lost first and then reintroduced as vowel separator, separating the stem in  $-\bar{a}$  from the endings which begin with vowels (for vowel separators, cf. II 2.4.3). The variants  $\bar{a}h$ - "come",  $j\bar{a}h$ - "chew",  $z\bar{a}h$ - "give birth" and  $s\bar{a}h$ - besides  $s\bar{a}y$ - "shave" (with unetymological, vowel-separating h) show that on a synchronic level, -y- is interpreted as a vowel separator.

The interpretation of the loss of -y- as an exclusively EBal. feature (note that  $s\bar{a}h$  "shadow" is only attested in DTB and EAL) would have the disadvantage of leaving  $\bar{a}murg$ ,  $\bar{a}h$ -,  $z\bar{a}h$ - and  $s\bar{a}h$ - "shave" without explanation. It thus seems better to assume that OIr.  $\bar{a}ia$  gave Bal.  $\bar{a}$  and that the SWBal. present stems  $\bar{a}y$ - etc. (infinitives  $\bar{a}yag$  etc.) show irregularly retention of y as morpheme separator or its reintroduction as vowel-separator. Since a change of OIr.  $\bar{a}ia > \bar{a}$  has also been assumed for (Middle) Persian (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:167f.) and Parthian (DURKIN-MEISTERERNST p. 89), <sup>191</sup> this development may be a common Western Middle Iranian one.

For OIr. *ai* /\_C, cf. II 2.3.3.

<sup>(</sup>SUNDERMANN 1997:107f.).

<sup>189</sup> The etymology of this verb (past stem  $g\bar{a}t$ ) is somewhat unclear. For discussion of some possibly related Ir. words (e.g. NP  $g\bar{a}y$ - /  $g\bar{a}d$ ), cf. MORGENSTIERNE 2003:30. The connection to OInd.  $\sqrt{j}y\bar{a}$  "rob, violate" (BAILEY 1979:82b and others) is not plausible (EWAia I:602f.).

<sup>190</sup> The past stem is  $s\bar{a}t$ . BMC and EAL also have  $s\bar{a}ht$  (from the present stem  $s\bar{a}h$ -), DTB has  $s\bar{a}int^h$ -. Note that Bal.  $s\bar{a}y$ - seems to be the only Ir. cognate of the OInd. present stem  $c^h\bar{a}y$ - < \*skeh<sub>2</sub>- ie- (Av.  $s\bar{a}zd\bar{u}m$  is probably rather to be connected to  $\sqrt{s\bar{a}}h$  "teach", LIV p. 547), only of OInd.  $c^hy\acute{a}ti$  (cf. EWAia I:558).

<sup>191</sup> Note that šāh "king" need not be a Median (or otherwise non-SWIr.) word (HOFFMANN 1976:637<sup>26</sup>).

#### 2.2 Consonant clusters

The consonant clusters treated here are ordered according to their first member. Wherever the result is a geminated consonant (cf. II 2.2.1.3, 2.2.2.1.2, 2.2.2.2, 2.2.2.3, 2.2.3.2, 2.2.3.3), it has to be kept in mind that these are restricted to the position after short vowels and that not all dialects preserve these (and/or not all sources mark them consistently), <sup>192</sup> so that gemination is always only optional.

#### 2.2.1 Combinations with fricatives

As seen above (cf. II 2.1.2.1), OIr. intervocalic fricatives are changed to the corresponding stops in Balochi. There are a number of contexts, however, where the fricatives are assimilated or lost.

### 2.2.1.1 Fricative + t

### OIr. ft > pt

OIr. ft, mainly occurring in the past stems of roots in -p (PIIr. \*-p-ta > OIr. -f-ta-), develops as expected, i.e. is changed to p like OIr. intervocalic f (cf. II 2.1.2.1, GEIGER 1891:432):

• rupt (past stem of rop- "sweep", NP ruft), kapt (past stem of kap- "fall", Prth. kaft), gwapt (past stem of gwap- "weave", NP bāft), wapt (past stem of waps- "go to sleep", NP, Prth. xuft, cf. p. 87). 193

Note, however, that EBal. has -pt-, too, although postvocalic p otherwise changes to f in these dialects (cf. p. 226).

#### OIr. xt

OIr. *xt* shows special developments: where it occurs in past stems of roots in (PIr.) \*-k and \*-g (PIr. \*-k-ta- > OIr. -*x-ta-*), we find different developments in the dialects (GEIGER 1889:95, 1891:423). A closer look at the relevant forms in the sources suggests that the distribution of the variants coincides with the major dialect groups:<sup>194</sup>

<sup>192</sup> Cf. II 1.1.1, 3.1.1.1 and 3.3.1.5.

<sup>193</sup> GEIGER's example (1891:432) hapt "seven" is most probably a loanword (cf. p. 81).

<sup>194</sup> For more details about the development in the dialects, cf. II 3.2.

- the Southern dialects show a metathesis \*-kt >  $-tk^{195}$  (e.g.  $g\bar{e}tk$  as past stem of  $g\bar{e}j$  "throw", cf. p. 241),
- the Western dialects have developed  $-ht^{196}$  (e.g.  $g\bar{e}(h)t$ , cf. p. 248),
- the Eastern dialects have -xt (e.g. gixt, cf. p. 230). 197

This variation is best explained as secondary developments from Common Balochi \*-kt-, the expected result of OIr. *xt*.

It is possible that OIr. xt when not in a past stem or in a word not recognised as a past stem any more gives (\*kt >) k(k):

- sak(k) "hard, very" might belong to NP saxt (GEIGER 1890:144), Prth. saxt,
- *pakkag* (BMC) "ripe, cooked" and the denominative (based on \*pakk-) *pakk-* / *pakkit* (BMC, EAL) "become ripe" could represent \*paxta-, originally the past stem of *pač-* "cook" (*pakkit* is noted as past stem of *pač-* for Turkmenistan Balochi in SOKOLOV 1956:81, EVM and EAL, otherwise it is *pakt*, *paht*, *patk*, see above).

Both words may have been borrowed from Urdu (sak "power" and  $pakk\bar{a}$  "cooked" respectively), however.

• A further possible case is  $z\bar{a}k$  "child", if it derives from \* $z\bar{a}kk < z\bar{a}tk$  (cf. p. 185).

### 2.2.1.2 Fricative + $\check{s}$

Word-initial  $f\tilde{s}$ -,  $x\tilde{s}$ - is reduced to  $\tilde{s}$ - as in several other Ir. languages.

## **OIr.** $f\tilde{s}$ - > $\tilde{s}$ -:

•  $\check{s}up\bar{a}nk^{199}$  "shepherd" (Av.  $f\check{s}u$ - "cattle" +  $\sqrt{p\bar{a}}$  "protect", NP, Prth.  $\check{s}ub\bar{a}n$ ).

With regard to Sogd. (Christian) *xwšp'ny*, Bactr. χοβανανο (pl.) "shepherd", it seems quite possible that \*fš- and \*xš- fell together to \*xš- first to be reduced to *š*- in Persian, Parthian, Balochi etc. later (Nicholas Sims-Williams, personal communication).

<sup>195</sup> Such sorts of metathesis are quite common in these dialects, cf. II 3.2.2.1.

<sup>196</sup> Some WBal. dialects drop h with compensatory lengthening of the vowel: e.g.  $tahta > t\bar{a}ta$  "run", past stem of  $ta\check{c}$ - "run" (cf. p. 247).

<sup>197</sup> For Elfenbein's claim that Sarāwānī also shows xt, cf. II 3.2.4.1.

<sup>198</sup>  $pak(k)\bar{a}$  has been borrowed into Balochi at any rate and means "cooked, paved (of roads), mature". It is noted as the perf. part. (which otherwise ends in -a) of  $p^ha\check{s}$ - "cook" in DTB.

<sup>199</sup> For variants, cf. p. 196, 236, for the suffix cf. p. 165. Note also that Pashto has *špāna* etc. (MORGENSTIERNE 1927:75) so that a borrowing cannot be ruled out.

**OIr.**  $x\check{s}$ - >  $\check{s}$ - (GEIGER 1891:425): $^{200}$ 

- *šap* "night" (Av. *xšap(an)*-, NP, Prth. *šab*),
- $\check{sod}$ -201 "wash" (Av.  $x\check{s}u\delta ra$  "liquid", NP  $\check{soy}$  / $\check{s}ust$ , Prth.  $\check{so}\delta$  / $\check{s}ust$ ).

#### OIr. $-x\check{s}- > -\check{s}k-$ :

Word-internal  $x\check{s}$  is changed to \*kš and then shows a metathesis (cf. p. 177) >  $\check{s}k$  (GEIGER 1891:425):

- bašk-<sup>202</sup> "forgive" (Av. baxša-, NP baxš- / baxšīd, Prth. baxš- / baxt);
- *šawašk* "sell" (OIr. \*fra-uax-š-, cf. p. 117);
- *šīnz*, *šūnz*<sup>203</sup> "green-blue" would be an exception if one connected it to Psht. *šīn* "green", which MORGENSTIERNE 1927:74 (following HÜBSCHMANN 1884:427f. and others) links to Av. *axšāēna* "dark": it would either show a reduction of word-internal *xš* or the loss of an initial vowel in a closed syllable.<sup>204</sup> Since words for colours are even more readily borrowed than other vocabulary items and, moreover, since Bal. names for colours of sure genuine character are nearly entirely lacking

<sup>200</sup> OIr.  $x\ddot{s}$  goes back to PIE  $*k^{(u)}s$ -,  $*k^{(u)}p$ -. For the outcome of PIE  $*\dot{k}s$ ,  $*\dot{k}p$ , cf. II 2.1.2.5.

 $s\bar{e}p$  "creek, abyss" (MP, NP  $s\bar{e}b$  "declivity"),  $s\bar{e}p$ - $m\bar{a}r$  (a kind of snake, cf. NP  $s\bar{e}b\bar{a}$ , STEINGASS 1892:771 has  $s\bar{i}b\bar{a}$ ) need not be an example for  $x\bar{s}$ -: there are two roots, viz. PIIr.  $\sqrt{c}s\bar{s}$  "throw" (e.g. OInd.  $\sqrt{k}s\bar{s}$ ) and  $\sqrt{k}s\bar{u}$  "move back and forth" (e.g. Av.  $s\bar{s}uua\bar{e}uua$ - "fast") which got mixed e.g. in MP  $s\bar{e}b$ - "move quickly" (YAKUBOVICH 2002:544f.). Bal.  $s\bar{e}p(^\circ)$  and MP, NP  $s\bar{e}b$  "declivity", on the other hand, may be related directly to  $\sqrt{c}s\bar{s}$  only. Prth.  $s\bar{e}b$ - "path" might also be adduced here: a compound OIr.  $s\bar{s}a\bar{s}a$ - (or  $s\bar{s}a$ ) "steep path" >  $s\bar{s}a$ - (haplology, suggestion by Desmond Durkin-Meisterernst, personal communication) would account both for the semantics (for a semantic parallel of a word for "steep path", cf. German  $s\bar{s}a$  as for the form (for Prth.  $s\bar{s}a$ -  $s\bar{s}a$ 

Word-initial  $x\bar{s}$  is preserved in the Prth. inscriptions (e.g. <\hat{h}\str> "country" (GIGNOUX 1972:53)) as well as in Arm. loanwords ( $a\bar{s}xarh$ ) while PrthT has  $\bar{s}$ -, e.g.  $\bar{s}ahr$  (Desmond Durkin-Meisterernst, personal communication).

<sup>201</sup> For the past stem, cf. p. 180, for the etymology, cf. p. 79.

<sup>202</sup> BMC, DTB, EAL. The past stem *baškāt* (BMC, DTB) is one of the few past stems in *-āt* (cf. III 4). EAL seems to assume that *baškāt* is due to some error and restores *baškīt* which would be a unique formation. EAL also has the regularly built *baškit*.

bašk- might have been borrowed from NP baxš- / baxšīd; bakš- / bakšit and baxš- / baxšit (FBB) surely are (cf. p. 177).

<sup>203</sup> For variants and attestation, cf. p. 198, 214, 309.

<sup>204</sup> Cf. II 2.3.1.1 for the assumption that initial short vowels are lost when in open syllable.

(cf. III 3), it is more than probable that  $\check{sinz}$ ,  $\check{sunz}$  is a loanword.<sup>205</sup> There is no suitable form among the cognates (BAILEY 1979:26b, MACIUSZAK 1996:31), though. The -z may have been influenced by NP sabz (Nicholas Sims-Williams, personal communication).

There is (pace GEIGER 1891:425) no need to assume that OIr.  $x\bar{s}$  may also result in Bal.  $\bar{s}$  since  $gwa\bar{s}$ - "say" need not be explained as coming from \*uaxša- (cf. p. 129).

 $\check{c}a\check{s}(\check{s})$ -  $/\check{c}a\check{s}(\check{s})it$  "taste, sip" may be explained as a loanword from NP  $\check{c}a\check{s}$ -  $/\check{c}a\check{s}\bar{\imath}d$  (for gemination in loanwords, cf. II 3.3.1.5). At any rate, it need not be an example of \*xš as MP  $\check{c}a\bar{x}\check{s}\bar{e}n$ - "cause to taste" might suggest, since a base \*čaš- is necessary for Sogd.  $pc\check{s}$ - "drink, taste",  $c\check{s}nt$  "drink" which cannot go back to \*čaxša- (Nicholas Sims-Williams, personal communication). Arm.  $\check{c}a\check{s}$  "breakfast",  $\check{c}a\check{s}ak$  "taste" (HÜBSCHMANN 1897:187), with the -k proving rather old age of the borrowing, i.e. a Prth. source (Jost Gippert, personal communication), will likewise derive from \*čaš-.

With regard to the change  $\check{s}n > n(n)$  (cf. II 2.2.2.2), it does not seem likely that OIr.  $x\check{s}n$  gives Bal.  $\check{s}n$ . The example is  $r\bar{o}\check{s}n\bar{a}$  "light (adj.)",  $r\bar{o}\check{s}n\bar{a}\bar{\iota}$  "light (subst.)" (Av.  $raox\check{s}na$ -(adj.), Prth.  $r\bar{o}\check{s}n$  (noun, adj.), NP  $r\bar{o}\check{s}an$  (adj.), cf. also p. 179); its  $-\bar{a}$  likewise seems to suggest an explanation as borrowing from NP  $r\bar{o}\check{s}an\bar{a}$ ,  $r\bar{o}\check{s}an\bar{a}$ ' $\bar{\iota}$ " "light (subst.)".

#### 2.2.1.3 Stop/Fricative + Nasal

OIr. hm > m(m):

It seems that hm is assimilated with lengthening of the m:

<sup>205</sup>  $\check{sinz}$  should show  $-\bar{e}$ - if it was a genuine cognate of Av.  $ax\check{sa\bar{e}na}$ -. This is not an absolute requirement, though (for occasional  $\bar{e} > \bar{\iota}$ , cf. II 3.1.2.3.2).  $\check{sunz}$  seems to show a hypercorrect reversal of the widespread dialectal change  $\bar{u} > \bar{\iota}$  (cf. II 3.1.2.3.1). Hypercorrect  $\bar{\iota} > \bar{u}$  is rather rare, but hypercorrect reversals of other changes do occur (cf. p. 201f. for  $\bar{\iota} > \bar{e}$ ,  $\bar{u} > \bar{o}$ ), and doublets with  $\bar{u} / \bar{\iota}$  are so common that a hypercorrect form would not be surprising.

<sup>206</sup> It seems that OIr. *xšn* was regularly reduced to *šn* in Parthian (e.g. *išnōhr* "grace, gratitude" vs. Av. √xšnao "favour", NP *xušnūd* "content"); so Prth. and MP *čāšnīg* "taste" may be derived from \*čāxšnijakā-(thus KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:216<sup>86</sup>, comparing MP *čāxšēn*- "cause to taste"). OIr. wordinternal *xš*V was preserved: Prth. *baxš*- might have been borrowed from MP, but Arm. loanwords show that Parthian had *xš* (changed to *šx* in Armenian), e.g. Arm. *vašx* "usury" from Ir. \*uax-š-(GIPPERT 1999:19f.). − Prth. *čaxšābed* "precept, command" does not belong here, but has been borrowed from OInd. *śikṣāpada*- (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1983b:139), the vowel of the second syllable may be due to an association by popular etymology to °*bed* < OIr. *pati*- "master" (Nicholas Sims-Williams, personal communication).

• The form of the 1pl. of the personal pronoun which is given as  $amm\bar{a}$  in SOKOLOV 1956:69 and BUDDRUSS 1988<sup>207</sup> may show a reflex of OIr. -hm- in the doubling of m (MORGENSTIERNE 1932:257, SOKOLOV 1956:69).

The same might apply to Parthian: while MP  $am\bar{a}(h)$  "we" may go back to OP gen.pl.  $am\bar{a}xam$  (DURKIN-MEISTERERNST p. 138), $^{208}$  one might derive Prth. <'m'(h)> from OIr. \*ahm $\bar{a}xam^{209}$  and to read it  $amm\bar{a}(h)$  (hitherto  $am\bar{a}(h)$ ). The only Prth. example for a consonant cluster hm seems to be yahm "until" which only occurs in phrases like yahm  $y\bar{a}w\bar{e}d$   $y\bar{a}w\bar{e}d\bar{a}n$  "for ever and ever (lit.: until eternal-eternal)" (DURKIN-MEISTERERNST p. 256f.), maybe an archaism of the religious language. $^{210}$ 

#### **OIr.** xm > m (GEIGER 1891:435):

A reduction of OIr. xm > Bal. m has often been noted and linked to parallel developments in other Modern NWIr. languages and to the change of OIr.  $šm > m^{211}$  seen in several NWIr. languages (cf. MACKENZIE 1961:71, WINDFUHR 1975:461). The relevant examples are:

- $t\bar{o}m^{212}$  "seed" (Av. taoxman-, NP tuxm, MPM  $t\bar{o}hm$ , MPZ  $t\bar{o}m$ , Prth.  $t\bar{o}xm$ ); 213
- *šōm* "ploughing" (NP *šuxm* "land ready for ploughing"), *šōm*-<sup>214</sup> "plough" (probably a denominative verb since there is no verb attested in related languages).

<sup>207</sup> NAWATA 1981:11 has *amā* for approximately the same dialect. The other dialects have *mā* (cf. V 1.2). *ammā* is also mentioned in SHG.

<sup>208</sup> hm is regularly reduced to m in OP, cf. Brandenstein/Mayrhofer 1964:42f.; ahmiy "I am" besides more common amiy is probably a dialectal form, cf. HOFFMANN 1976a:639<sup>33</sup>.

<sup>209</sup> It is possible that PIr. 1pl. \*ahmāxam, 2pl. \*ušmākam were transformed to \*ahmāxam, \*ušmāxam in some Ir. languages and to \*ahmākam, ušmākam in others (KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:203<sup>40</sup>). \*ahmāxam, \*ušmāxam indeed seem well fit to be the protoforms of Prth. <'m'(h)>, <°šm'(h)>.

<sup>210</sup> yahm may be derived from OIr. yahmāi (HENNING 1934:909b).

<sup>211</sup> Note that  $\check{s}m > m$  is likely to be an independent development in diverse Ir. languages (KORN 2003:57) and that there is (pace WINDFUHR 1975:461) no evidence for an intermediary stage  $\check{s}m > *hm > m(m)$  in Balochi, although such a stage is surely quite possible (see below).

<sup>212</sup> SHG, BMC, EVM, EAL, NAWATA 1981:37.

<sup>213</sup> The vowel of the Prth. word is confirmed by Arm. tohm.

<sup>214</sup> This word is only reported from the Makran Gazetteer by MORGENSTIERNE 1948:290 and cited in EAL, but also attested in Brahui, cf. MORGENSTIERNE 1937:348. The etymology presented by MORGENSTIERNE 1937:348 (\*xšaud-man- "crushing", cf. OInd. √kṣud) seems to be difficult to combine with the data.

If this change proceeded through a stage \*hm, which seems quite likely, it might fit the change of OIr. hm > m(m) as seen in  $am(m)\bar{a}$ : OIr. xm may have yielded \*hm early enough for this \*hm to be treated like OIr. hm. The variant tuhm may then be explained as a NP loanword and the  $\bar{u}$  of  $t\bar{u}m$  as showing the effect of raising (cf. II 3.1.2.3.2).

Alternatively, it does not seem entirely impossible that the examples are to be explained in the light of the Bal. change of  $uh > \bar{o}$  (cf. II 3.1.3.2): the vowel shortening observed in NP tuxm,  $\check{s}uxm^{215}$  may also have occurred in Balochi. If so, OIr. xm > hm must have operated after OIr. hm was assimilated to m(m), otherwise one would expect tuhm, \* $\check{s}uhm > \dagger tum(m)$ ,  $\dagger \check{s}um(m)$ . An argument which might speak for this solution is that the variants tuhm (EAL, SHG),  $t\bar{o}hm$  (only EAL) and  $t\bar{u}m$  (GEIGER 1890:159) show the same pattern as the other cases of uh, i.e. uh besides  $\bar{u}$  in old sources vs.  $\bar{o}$  (and possibly hypercorrect  $\bar{o}h$ ) in more recent ones.

#### OIr. dm

The outcome of OIr. *dm*- in Balochi is not known since no cognate of Av. *dəmāna*-, NP *bān* (borrowed into Georgian as *ban*- and into Armenian as *banak*) has been found so far. For Bal. *bānuk* "lady", cf. p. 164.

### 2.2.1.4 Fricative + r

The consonant clusters involving fricatives and r show particularly interesting changes, differing from what one might expect when considering the developments of the individual sounds.<sup>216</sup>

### 2.2.1.4.1 Word-initial position

**OIr.**  $fr - > \check{s}$ - (MACKENZIE 1961:79):

Word-initial fr- seems to yield Bal.  $\check{s}$ -, all examples involving OIr. fra $^{\circ}$ : <sup>217</sup>

<sup>215</sup> Cf. Bartholomae 1906:70.

<sup>216</sup> For PIr. \* $\vartheta$ r (Av.  $\vartheta$ r, OP  $\varphi$ ), cf. II 2.1.2.4.

<sup>217</sup> Similarly, Choresmian shows a change of \*frā- >  $\check{s}$ ', e.g.  $\check{s}$ 'c "tomorrow", cf. Sogd. fr'k;  $\check{s}$ ' $\beta$ 'r "witness" < \*frā-bāra- (HENNING 1958:114, MACKENZIE 1990:122).

- EBal.  $\check{s}ast$  /  $\check{s}ast\bar{a}\vartheta$  218 "send".
- *šamōš-*<sup>219</sup> "forget" (NP *farāmōš- / farāmušt*, MP, Prth. *frāmōš- / frāmušt*),
- *šawašk-/šawaxt*<sup>220</sup> "sell" (NP *furōš-/furōxt*).

The development of OIr. fr- > Bal.  $\check{s}$ - is likely to have proceeded via devoiced r,  $^{221}$  and/or via a fricative like Czech  $\check{r}$ .

So the following items will not represent the genuine development:

- rastar "beast" which might be connected either to MP  $fr\bar{e}str$  (derived from \*frafstra-< \*fra-pt-tra- by GERSHEVITCH 1954:246) or to Av. xrafstra- (for xr-> Bal. kr-, see below). The word might show a special development (dissimilation of f- or x-) or may have been borrowed from some idiom which reduces xr- and/or fr- to r- as Zazaki does in the case of fr-, although no convenient source is in sight. 222
- $pr\bar{a}h$  "wide" (Prth.  $fr\bar{a}x^{223}$ ) may have been borrowed from MP  $fr\bar{a}x^{224}$

- 220 Also šōšk- (GEB), cf. p. 239. The past stem šawaxt (DTB, GCD, EAL: Eastern) fits well with NP furōxt and goes back to \*fra- + uak + -ta- → \*frauaxta- > MP frōxt. The present stem has a suffix -š- (HORN 1893:183), cf. MP frōxš-, Av. vaxš-, and a metathesis (cf. p. 113, 177). The past stem šawašt (EAL) is modelled on the present stem. Parthian has wāž- / wāxt without preverb and suffix.
- 221 Thus PAUL (frthc.), cf. occasional MPM  $hr\bar{e}stag$  "apostle" for more common  $fr\bar{e}stag$ . It is possible that Prth. hr (usually < OIr.  $\vartheta r$ , cf. II 2.1.2.4) denotes devoiced r (DURKIN-MEISTERERNST p. 53f.).
- 222 GEIGER's etymology (1890:143, with OInd. arś- "injure") is dismissed by HÜBSCHMANN 1890:559.
- 223 The reading farrāx (BOYCE 1977:39) is probably an error induced by MP, Prth. farrox "fortunate".
- 224 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:559 says that Bal. *prāh* is a NP (sic) loanword because a cognate of Av. *fraðah*-should result in Bal. \*prat, which is not correct as far as the \*pr- is concerned; neither is MošKALO's assumption (1991:22) of Bal. *prāh* showing that OIr. *aða* results in Bal. *ā* (cf. p. 81). NP *farāh*, MPZ <pl'hw> has been derived from OIr. \*frā(h)uua- (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:84). The derivation from \*fraðah-uant- (SALEMANN 1901:260, WEBER 1994:112, MošKALO 1991:22) seems difficult to combine with the rules for MP syncopation as set out in KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:210ff.

<sup>218</sup> DTB, EAL; also šašt- / šaštāϑ- (GEB, GCD, EAL), for which cf. p. 180; MAYER 1910 notes šašt- / šaštaϑ- with a shortening of the past stem suffix (cf. p. 186). Further past stems are (EAL) šastit and šaštit, but their existence seems questionable. BAILEY 1979:487b connects NP firist- / firistād to Av. fraēšiia- etc., i.e. fra- + √iš (OInd. √iṣ "send"), cf. Prth. frēštag "angel", but for Bal. šast- / šastāϑ-, a derivation from OIr. fra + √stā seems more likely (GEIGER 1890:147).

<sup>219</sup> Also šamūš- (DTB), šamuš- (DTB, YŪSEFIYĀN 1992:102), past stem šamōšt (BMC, EAL), šamušt (DTB, YŪSEFIYĀN 1992:102). As HÜBSCHMANN 1895:84 observes, the -ō- of farāmōš- (and of šamōš-) must be secondary, analogical to verbs with a present stem containing OIr. -au- / past stem -u-, and šamōšt is formed from this present stem. šamušt can be regular, and so can the present šamuš- (cf. the formations from the zero-grade root Khot. hāmura- < \*frāmṛša- "forgetful", OInd. present mṛṣyá-, aorist mṛṣanta, EWAia II:332). šamūš- shows yet another analogical "strengthening" of the present stem vs. the past stem šamušt. For PIr. \*ṛ and OIr. rš, cf. II 2.3.2, 2.1.2.4, respectively. MP and Prth. frā-mōš- show an additional preverb ā (GHILAIN 1939:62).

**OIr.** xr - > kr - (MORGENSTIERNE 1948:254):

Word-initial xr- develops as expected with regard to OIr. x > Bal. k (cf. II 2.1.2.1): $^{225}$ •  $kr\bar{o}s^{226}$  "cock" (Av.  $\sqrt{x}$ raos "to cry", NP  $xur\bar{o}s$ , Prth.  $xr\bar{o}sag$  "caller").

#### 2.2.1.4.2 Word-internal position

GEIGER 1891:415 (cf. also BARTHOLOMAE 1890:551, HÜBSCHMANN 1890:559) expects \*rp, \*rt, \*rk as the outcomes of word-internal OIr. fr,  $\vartheta r$ , xr. This assumption would have the advantage of being in line with the usual development of OIr. fricatives; it would imply that suhr "red" is a loanword from MP suxr. However, the only example speaking for this view is  $\check{c}ark$  "wheel, machine" (Av.  $\check{c}axra$ -, NP  $\check{c}arx$ , Prth.  $\check{c}axr$ ) which as Geiger admits may have been borrowed from NP  $\check{c}arx$ . There is no evidence for \*rp, \*rt as the Bal. outcome of OIr. fr, fr, fr, fr thave been weakened as in other NWIr. languages. There is not much evidence for that either, but the examples cannot be dismissed easily.

### **OIr.** -fr > -hr (Morgenstierne 1948:254):

- gwahr "cold (noun)" (Av. vafra-, NP barf, Prth. wafr, all meaning "snow"), 227
- jahl "low" (Av. jafra- "deep", Prth. žafr, cf. p. 161),

<sup>225</sup> If *kurm* "pit for storing grain" comes from \*krum < \*xrum, it is another example. Its etymology is not clear, though. Br. *xurrum* "grain-pit" may be a Dravidian word (in this case, Bal. *kurm* could be from Brahui), but a borrowing in the other direction is likewise possible (Rossi 1979:103). Morgenstierne's connection (1938:267f., similarly Bailey 1979:501a) of Bal. *kurm* to Yidgha *xurom*, NP *xirman* etc. "threshing floor" and OInd. √krami "step" appears questionable. Alternatively, one might compare Sogd. *xwrm* (rarely also *x(w)rwm*) "soil, earth", for which a connection with √krami is excluded (Nicholas Sims-Williams, personal communication) and which MacKenzie 1970:56 links to Yaghnobi, Taj. *xurma* "earthenware jar". As *xwrm/xrwm* is a heavy stem and unless one assumes complicated analogical processes, either *xwrm* must be the original form or *xrwm* contains a long vowel (thus Gershevitch 1959:189, who advocates a connection with Av. *xrūma*-, translating it "crumbling" vs. a derivation from *xrū*- "blood" assumed otherwise, and with Av. *paxruma*- "eartho", Gershevitch 1942:101). The Av. words, if they belong together, rather point to short *u*, though, since the vowel length in *xrūma*- may be secondary (Michiel de Vaan, personal communication), although it has to be kept in mind that *paxruma*- is a late hapax legomenon.

<sup>226</sup> GEIGER 1891:417, EAL, FBB; otherwise kurōs (EAL), kurōsk.

<sup>227</sup> There is no necessity for ELFENBEIN's assumption (1989:635) that *gwahr* has been borrowed from Khetrani *vahōr*, which would moreover imply the loss of the second (long) vowel.

• *juhl* "deep", MP *zofr* will be a contamination of Av. *gufra-* "deep" and *jahl* (BARTHOLOMAE 1904:525) with a redistribution of the semantic fields.

jahl leads GEIGER 1889:82 to suppose that -fr- gives -hl. gwahr, however, shows that -hr can be the regular outcome. One may thus assume that jahl and juhl show the occasional development of r > l discussed in II 2.4.2; in addition, a popular etymology with NP-Ar. jahl "ignorance",  $majh\bar{u}l$  "hidden" may play a role here.

### **OIr.** *-xr* > *-hr*, *-hl* (MORGENSTIERNE 1948:254):

Like in the case of fr, -hr / -hl is likely to represent the regular outcome of OIr. -xr:

- $suhr^{228}$  "red" could also have been borrowed from MP suxr, but might also be genuine (cf. Av. suxra-, Prth. suxrag "purple");
- $tahl^{229}$  "bitter" < \*taxra- (KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:206<sup>51</sup>), if it was not borrowed from MPZ (same form in Parthian) taxl, MPM tahr, NP talx;
- *wahl* "crooked" might go back to \*hu-uaxra- (cf. OInd. *vakrá*-) as NP *x*<sup>w</sup>*ahl* does (KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:206) or else may have been borrowed from MP *wahr* (< \*uaxra-, KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:206).

The parallel change of fr > hr might suggest that hr is the regular outcome here, and that the l is to be seen in the context of other changes of r > l (cf. II 2.4.2).

### OIr. $\gamma r$ , $\delta r$

The Bal. outcome of OIr.  $\gamma r$  is not clear. Moškalo 1991:22 assumes a change  $i\gamma r > \bar{\imath} r$  in  $t\bar{\imath} r$  "arrow, bullet" (Av.  $ti\gamma ra$ - "sharp", MP tigr "arrow", Prth.  $tir\gamma$  "fast"), but the word may have been borrowed from NP  $t\bar{\imath} r$  (Hübschmann 1890:556, 560). The same may apply to  $d\bar{e} r$  "late" (Av.  $dar\partial\gamma a$ -, MP  $dagr > d\bar{e} r$ , Prth.  $dar\gamma$ , all "long", NP  $d\bar{e} r$  "late", Hübschmann 1890:556) and  $\check{s} \bar{e} r$  "lion" (NP  $\check{s} \bar{e} r$ , MP  $\check{s} agr$ , Prth.  $\check{s} ar\gamma$ ). However, if  $\check{c} \bar{e} r$  "under" is not a compound formed in Balochi from  $\check{c}$ - "of" and MP  $\bar{e} r$ , but an older formation (cf. p. 199), it might derive from \*čaðr < \*č-adari (cf. Sogd.  $c'\delta r$ , cf. Gershevitch 1954:232). So it seems possible that MIr.  $a\gamma r$ ,  $a\delta r$  yields Bal.  $\bar{e} r$ . If so,  $i\gamma r$  may indeed give  $\bar{\imath} r$  as well.

<sup>228</sup> Also  $s\bar{o}r$  (BMC, EAL, EVM, FBB). For  $uh > \bar{o}$ , cf. II 3.1.3.2.

<sup>229</sup> For dialectal variants, cf. p. 207, 253. NP talx is also used.

<sup>230</sup> For etymological discussion of MP šēr etc., cf. BAILEY 1979:421, KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:208<sup>64</sup>.

### 2.2.1.5 Fricative + u

## 2.2.1.5.1 OIr. fu

The only example of OIr. fu is NP kahun, kuhan, kuhan "old", Prth. kafwan, MP kahwan (MPZ <khwbn'>, MPM <qhwn>, MACKENZIE 1986:48),  $^{231}$  Khot. kuhana-, Bactr. μαβογγο etc. which have been derived from \*kafuana- / \*kapuna- (BAILEY 1979:62b, 64b, SIMS-WILLIAMS 2000:197a). Bal. variants include kwahn (SHG) /kwan (FBB) /kohn / kuhn "old".  $^{232}$  kwan may be explained as a dialectal variant of kwahn (cf. II 3.2.3.3) and kon derived from kuhn (cf. II 3.1.3.2), thus leaving kwahn and kuhn as primary variants. As kuhn might have been borrowed from NP, kwahn could be the genuine Bal. word. If kwahn is not a borrowing from MP kahwan, it shows that the change of OIr. fu > hw has operated in Balochi as well as in MP.

# 2.2.1.5.2 OIr. $\vartheta u$

It would be particularly interesting to know the genuine Balochi result of OIr.  $\vartheta_{\mu}$  as the treatment of this consonant cluster is one of the isoglosses often used to distinguish South Western (MP h)<sup>233</sup> from North Western Iranian (Prth.  $f^{234}$ ). Unfortunately, however, all possible examples may be loanwords:

• the numbers "four" ( $\check{car}$  vs. Prth.  $\check{cafar}$ , Av.  $\check{cab}\beta\bar{a}r\bar{o}$ ) and "forty" ( $\check{cil}(l)$ , Prth.  $\check{cafrast}$ , Av.  $\check{cab}\beta ar\bar{o}sat$ -) are likely to have been borrowed from NP ( $\check{car}$ ,  $\check{cahar}$  and  $\check{cil}$ ,  $\check{cihil}$ ) since it is probable that the whole numeral system has been borrowed

<sup>231</sup> For further discussion of MP *kahwan*, cf. WEBER 1994:113. Weber's statement that the development of MP *hw* (in *kahwan*) is the same as that of MP  $x^w$ , xu (as in *naxust*, *saxwan*) appears questionable, however, since NP shows x in the latter cases (*naxust*, *suxan*), but h in the former one (*kuhan* etc.).

<sup>232</sup> ABG's transcription <kəwhn> (i.e. *kauhn*) of كهن may be a misprint for <kwhn> (i.e. *kuhn*), cf. also the attributive form *kuhnī* (for which cf. p. 200) listed as a separate lemma.

<sup>233</sup> For a discussion of the possible MP outcome word-initial  $\vartheta \mu$ , cf. Weber 1994:114f., Korn (frthc. 4).

<sup>234</sup> The Prth. outcome of OIr. word-internal  $\vartheta_{\mu}$  (for the word-inital position, cf. Henning 1958:97²) has been assumed to be f e.g. by Tedesco 1921:199 and Henning 1958:97. The possibility of Prth. tf being the result at least in word-final position has also been discussed (cf. Weber 1994:111¹¹¹ and Henning 1958:97², note that Prth. <ctf'r> "four" noted by Weber 1994:111¹¹¹ is not attested, the word being written <cf'r>). The discussion has been summarised by Sims-Williams 2004 who concludes that the PrthT outcome of OIr.  $\vartheta_{\mu}$  is  $\delta f$  in word-internal position as shown by  $ni\delta f\bar{a}r$  "haste" and its family (the f in  $\check{c}af\bar{a}r$  being the result of a dissimilation) while in word final position, there are the dialectal variants f and f. For further discussion, cf. Korn (frthc. 4).

(cf. p. 81); the gemination in  $\check{cil}(l)$  also speaks in favour of this assumption (cf. II 3.3.1.5);<sup>235</sup>

- similarly, *puhl*,  $p\bar{o}l$  (< PIr. obl. stem \*prðu- (Av.  $p\bar{o}r\bar{o}tu$  /  $p\bar{o}r\bar{o}\vartheta\beta$ -) via \*purh) "bridge" might be a Pers. word (MP *puhl*, Prth.  $purt^{236}$ , cf. II 2.2.3.1);
- $g\bar{a}h$  "time" may have been borrowed from NP  $g\bar{a}h$  (cf. p. 81);
- the Bal. abstract suffix  $-\bar{t}$  corresponds to NP  $-\bar{t}$ , MP  $-\bar{t}h$ , Prth.  $-\bar{t}f(t)^{237}$ ), it comes from \*-iia- $\vartheta$ ua- (GAUTHIOT 1918:66f., TEDESCO 1921:199f.) and has been borrowed from NP/MP<sup>238</sup> (HENNING 1958:97¹) since early MIr. -h or -f(t) would probably not be lost in Balochi.

## 2.2.1.5.3 OIr. du-

The case of OIr.  $d\mu$  (usually producing NWIr. b-, SWIr. d-) is not straightforward either. It has been concluded from  $d\bar{o}$ , du "two" (Av. duua-),  $duw\bar{a}zdah$  "twelve"(Av. duua-dasa), digar "other" (OP  $duvit\bar{a}^\circ$ ) and dar "door" (Av. duuar-)<sup>239</sup> that Balochi shows \* $d\mu$ -> d (TEDESCO 1921:200, MACKENZIE 1961:75, WINDFUHR 1975:459ff.) as do Persian<sup>240</sup> and Kurdish. However,  $d\bar{o}$  and  $duw\bar{a}zdah$  probably do not show the relevant context since they probably go back to \* $du\mu$ - as shown by Prth.  $d\bar{o}$ ,  $dw\bar{a}\delta es$  and MP  $dw\bar{a}zdah$  (WEBER 1994:111). Moreover,  $digar^{241}$  and  $duw\bar{a}zdah$  must for reasons of their -g- and -h, respectively, have been borrowed from Persian anyway, and the same is probably true for  $d\bar{o}$ .  $^{242}$ 

<sup>235</sup> čār-dah "14" is obviously a loanword for reasons of °dah.

<sup>236</sup> Prth. <pwrt> is derived from \*prtu- by BOYCE 1954:194. However, with regard to Prth. <br/>
"carried" from \*brta-, <mwrd> "died" from \*mrta- etc., the t in <pwrt> seems to call for another explanation. Deriving it from \*pr $\vartheta$ u- as the other WIr. forms and assuming a development via \*purft and a simplification of the consonant cluster (or dissimilatory loss of f), the word might be seen as a further example of OIr.  $\vartheta u$  > Prth. -ft and is thus liable to confirm the rules established by SIMS-WILLIAMS 2004 (see above), cf. KORN (frthc. 4).

<sup>237 -</sup>īf is found in the inscriptions, -īft in the Turfan texts (HENNING 1958:96f.).

<sup>238</sup> MP  $-\bar{\imath}$  is a late variant of both the abstract suffix  $-\bar{\imath}h$  and the adjective suffix  $-\bar{\imath}g$  (Durkin-Meisterenst p. 115), the latter corresponding to Bal.  $-\bar{\imath}g$ . Prth.  $-\bar{\imath}$  may be due to the influence of MP or to scribal errors (Desmond Durkin-Meisterernst, personal communication).

<sup>239</sup> Parthian has bar. The more common Bal. word for "door" is the NP loanword darwāzag.

<sup>240</sup> WEBER 1994:115 argues that the development went via  $\delta u$  (the stage parallel to  $\vartheta u$ ) > \* $\delta^w$ .

<sup>241</sup> For further discussion of NP digar, cf. BARTHOLOMAE 1906:63\*.

<sup>242</sup> For the Bal. numbers being borrowed from NP, cf. p. 81.

The rare  $ipt\bar{i}$ ,  $pit\bar{i}^{243}$  "second, other" might thus represent the regular outcome:  $^*d\underline{u}it\bar{i}a > ^*bit\bar{i} > ^*pt\bar{i}$  (MORGENSTIERNE 1932:51), cf. Prth. bid "other",  $bid\bar{i}g$  "second" (vs. NP  $d\bar{i}gar$ ). A second instance could be the even rarer  $w\bar{a}rdaf$  (only in MAYER 1910) "door-opening" (with the EBal. form of dap "mouth") if it is to be connected with Av. duuar- "door" etc. MORGENSTIERNE's assumption (1932:52) of a dissimilation from  $^*duar$ -daf<sup>244</sup> would imply the assumption that du- was preserved for a very long time<sup>245</sup> since otherwise w- would have given gw-.

A way out seems to be that  $d\underline{u}$ - could have given \*v (or another sound different from the input to the change of OIr.  $\underline{u}$ -> gw-), which would have turned into normal w in  $w\bar{a}rdaf$  and was assimilated to the following consonant in  $(i)pt\bar{t}$ . The evidence is extremely weak, unfortunately.

## 2.2.1.5.4 OIr. hu-

 $hu - > w - / \underline{\ddot{a}}$  (GEIGER 1891:413):<sup>246</sup>

•  $w\bar{a}n$ - "read" (OInd.  $\sqrt{\text{svan}}$ , Av.  $\sqrt{\text{x}^{\text{v}}\text{an}}$ , NP  $x^{\text{w}}\bar{a}n$ - /  $x^{\text{w}}\bar{a}nd$ , Prth. xun- /  $xun\bar{a}d$  "sound" (OInd.  $\sqrt{\text{svap}}$ , Av.  $x^{\text{v}}afsa$ -, NP, Prth. xusp-, cf. p. 87), war- "eat" (Av.  $x^{\text{v}}ara$ -, NP  $x^{\text{w}}ar$ - /  $x^{\text{w}}urd$ , MP xwar- / xward, Prth. xusp- / xward), xvard- (OInd. xvard-, Av.  $x^{\text{v}}a$ -, NP  $x^{\text{w}}ud$ , MP xwad, Prth. xvard- (OInd. xvard-),

<sup>243</sup> DTB;  $ipt\bar{\iota}$  also in MAYER 1910,  $pit\bar{\iota}$  also from an informant of MORGENSTIERNE (1932:51). The reduced form  $t\bar{\iota}$  is also noted in SHG. GEIGER 1891:428, following BARTHOLOMAE 1890:554, explains  $t^h\bar{\iota}$  as derived from \*duit $\bar{\iota}$ -> \*dt $\bar{\iota}$ , which does not match the other forms.

<sup>244</sup> For further discussion, cf. p. 220.

<sup>245</sup> Note that Prth. <dby $\S(y)$  $\S(y)$ 

<sup>246</sup> If *hūrt* "tiny" belongs with NP *xurd* and Psht. *wur* and if these are to be derived from < \*hu-rta-("well ground" according to MORGENSTIERNE 1927:92, 1937:347), all of which is far from sure, this could show a special development of PIr. \*ur or rather the separate treatment of \*hu° "well" plus \*rta-. Elfenbein's etymology (EVM 18, probably derived from HORN 1893:112) of *hūrt* and NP *xurd* as coming from \*k\*rt-is not possible (cf. HÜBSCHMANN 1895:57). For dialectal variants, cf. p. 197.

<sup>247</sup> Prth. <xwn- / (pd)xwn'd> involves the problem that one would expect a full grade for the pres. stem of a transitive verb which, if the etymology is correct, would be †wxan- †<wxn->. The consistent writing with <xwn-> (cf. also *abxun* "cry (noun)") suggests the interpretation *xun*- with the zero-grade being taken from the past stem *xunād* (thus also DURKIN-MEISTERERNST 2004:368a, giving up the reading *xōn*- advocated in DURKIN-MEISTERERNST 2000:83).

- $w\bar{a}b$  "sleep" might either have been borrowed from NP  $x^w\bar{a}b^{248}$  with a change of the beginning of the word in analogy to waps- (MORGENSTIERNE 1932:52) or represent genuine \*wāp with "assimilation" of the word-final to NP  $x^w\bar{a}b$  (Jost Gippert, personal communication).
- $gwah\bar{a}r$  "sister" (OInd.  $svas\acute{r}$ -, Av.  $x^va\eta har$ -, cf. also p. 99) seems to an exception; it looks as if it went back to \*uahār, probably (MORGENSTIERNE 1927:97) a dissimilation from \*huahār. Note that the vowel quantities are etymologically correct, in contrast to those of NP  $x^w\bar{a}har$ .

Based on the fact that OIr.  $h\underline{u}$ - comes out as  $w^h$ - in Eastern Balochi (cf. p. 226), MORGENSTIERNE 1948:255<sup>4</sup> assumes that OIr.  $h\underline{u}$ - was preserved as such in Common Balochi with a metathesis resulting in the Eastern Balochi outcome. Although this is possible, it seems at least equally plausible that the aspiration of  $w^h$ - has developed together with the general aspiration of word-initial voiceless stops in Eastern Balochi (cf. II 1.1.2.2, 3.2.1.1.1), so it is assumed here that OIr.  $h\underline{u}$ - yields w- in Common Balochi.

Note that CBal. w- from OIr.  $h\mu$ - is not an input for the rule (OIr.)  $\mu$ - > g(w)- (cf. II 2.1.3.3.1).

 $hu - > h - / \bar{i}, \bar{e}$  (Geiger 1891:423):

- $h\bar{e}d$  "sweat" (OInd.  $sv\acute{e}da$ -, Av.  $x^v a\bar{e}\delta a$ -, NP  $x^w ai$ ) and
- $h\bar{t}$  "young grain" (NP  $xaw\bar{e}d^{251}$ ).

Parthian has <wx-> in all relevant cases. According to MACKENZIE 1967:26<sup>29</sup>, the orthography may denote devoiced w. 252

<sup>248</sup> For further Ir. cognates, cf. Benveniste 1929:75. Cf. also p. 276.

<sup>249</sup> Morgenstierne assumes that the same development has taken place in Greek ἔορες which is not strictly necessary since it can also come from a dialect without initial *h*- (psilotic). This explanation seems more likely than BARTHOLOMAE's (1890:552) who assumes a Sandhi phenomenon.

<sup>250</sup> The vowel quantities of NP  $x^w \bar{a}har$  have probably been adjusted to those in  $m\bar{a}dar$  "mother" and  $bar\bar{a}dar$  "brother" (Jost Gippert, personal communication).

<sup>251</sup> Also  $xiw\bar{e}d$  and  $x^waid$  according to STEINGASS 1892:490. The etymology beyond MP  $xw\bar{e}d$  is not known. For  $\bar{e} > \bar{\iota}$ , cf. II 3.1.2.3.2.

<sup>252</sup> MacKenzie's interpretation has widely been accepted, cf. e.g. SUNDERMANN 1989a:122. An example for Prth.  $\langle wx- \rangle$  + palatal vowel is  $wx\bar{e}b\bar{e}h$  "own". For MP  $\langle xw \rangle$ , cf. Weber 1994.

#### 2.2.2 Combinations with sibilants

### 2.2.2.1 Sibilant + stop/affricate

#### 2.2.2.1.1 OIr. $sT > \check{s}T$

Occasionally, Bal. š is found where one might expect s (Moškalo 1991:33):

- $i\check{s}kand$  "penalty (EAL), unfinished (SHG)"<sup>253</sup> and the etymologically related NP  $\check{s}ikan$   $/\check{s}ikast$  "break" show an unexptected  $\check{s}k$  vs. Av.  $sk\partial nd\bar{o}$  "harm, impairment" ( $\sqrt{s}kand$ , cf. EWAia II:750);
- *iškār* (MAYER 1910:32), *iškar* "(char)coal, ember" vs. the maybe earlier form reflected in Br. *isxar-zūr* "tongs" (lit.: "coal-taker", cf. ROSSI 1979:148); the word may be connected to NP *si/a/ukār*, Psht. *skōr*, Sogd. *sq'r* etc. (Nicholas Sims-Williams, personal communication), i.e. \*skāra- (MORGENSTIERNE 2003:74).<sup>254</sup>

There is no example of the reverse change which is rather common in MP (cf. HÜBSCHMANN 1895:236f.): *dōst* "friend" vs. Av. *zaoša-* "wish", Prth. *zōš* "love" has not been "influenced by" (thus Moškalo 1991:32), but borrowed from NP (GEIGER 1891:448).

 $\bar{o}$ št- / $\bar{o}$ št $\bar{a}$ t, ušt- /ušt $\bar{a}$ t "stand" vs. ust- /ust $\bar{a}$ t (Afghanistan and Turkmenistan Balochi: EVM, NAWATA 1981:17)<sup>255</sup> might be derived from \*aua-hišt-ati / \*aua-st $\bar{a}$ ta-(SOKOLOV 1956:82) > \* $\bar{o}$ št- / \* $\bar{o}$ st $\bar{a}$ t- with generalisation of either  $\bar{s}$ t or  $\bar{s}$ t in different dialects (Nicholas Sims-Williams, personal communication).

The two examples which according to GEIGER 1891:434 show a reduction of word-initial st > t do not hold (BARTHOLOMAE 1893:263):

•  $tr\bar{u}$ ,  $tr\bar{t}$  "aunt" can most convincingly be connected with OInd.  $pitrvy\hat{a}$ -, Av.  $t\bar{u}^i riia$ "father's brother" (etymology accepted by GEIGER 1893:189), thus deriving from

<sup>253</sup> The etymology of this word seems not to have been discussed yet. For prothetic vowels, cf. II 2.3.4.

<sup>254</sup> The Psht., Sogd. etc. cognates would confirm the etymology (a connection with Av. *ska<sup>i</sup>riia*-, according to BARTHOLOMAE 1904:1587 a device used for making fire) by HORN 1893:163, 1901:87 and BENVENISTE 1955:300 (pace HÜBSCHMANN 1895:76) rather than the derivation from \*uz-kāra-(ROSSI 1979:148, following EILERS' 1974:307<sup>2</sup>, 321f. explanation of NP *zugāl* and *nigāl*, Psht. *nγarai* "fireplace" < \*ni-kāra-).

<sup>255</sup> The forms with u- must be due to an analogical ablaut, cf.  $r\bar{o}p$ - / rupt "sweep", thus \* $\bar{o}$ št- / ušt $\bar{a}$ t. Prth. awi-st- / awi-st-d shows a different preverb. NP has  $\bar{i}$ st- /  $\bar{i}$ st $\bar{a}$ d.

- \*ptruijā- "father's sister" > "aunt",<sup>256</sup>
- $t\bar{a}n(a)$  "stall" might (as supposed by Bartholomae) have been borrowed from an Ind. language, e.g. Si.  $t\bar{a}nu$  "stall in stable" (TURNER 1966:739b), thus not from OP  $st\bar{a}na$ -; it is only attested in Geiger's sources, all of them from the Eastern dialects.

#### 2.2.2.1.2 OIr. zd

zd is assimilated to z(z) in possibly inherited as well as in borrowed words:<sup>257</sup>

- naz(z),  $naz(z)\bar{\imath}k$  "near" (Av.  $nazdii\bar{o}$ , NP  $nazd(\bar{\imath}k)$ , Prth. nazd) can be genuine;
- muz(z) "wages" shows zd > z(z) in a loanword (Av.  $m\bar{z}da$ -, NP muzd, Prth.  $mu\bar{z}d$ );
- duz(z) "thief" and derivatives may have been borrowed from MP duz, it might also show an assimilation of borrowed NP duzd.

#### 2.2.2.1.3 OIr. $s + \check{c}$

#### **Av.** $s\check{c} > \check{s}$ (GEIGER 1891:425):

Balochi might go with other NWIr. languages in the development of  $s\check{c} > \check{s}$  (vs. OP etc. s). The examples often cited (TEDESCO 1921:209 etc.) involve the combination of PIr. \*pas "behind", \*kas "someone", \*čis "something" plus an element with  $\check{c}$ -. <sup>258</sup> In Balochi,  $pa\check{s}$ ,  $pa\check{s}t$  "back" (Av.  $pas\check{c}a$ , OP  $pas\bar{a}$ , NP pas, Prth.  $pa\check{s}$ ) and kas "person" are attested. MORGENSTIERNE 1948:290 assumes that  $pa\check{s}t$  is the genuine Bal. outcome and that  $pa\check{s}$  came about through metanalysis of the comparative  $pa\check{s}tir$  "later" (originally \*pašt-tar- according to Morgenstierne) as  $pa\check{s} + tar$ . Although this cannot be ruled out, it seems equally possible that  $pa\check{s}t$  is due to an analogy to  $pu\check{s}t^{259}$  "back" (the same could apply to Semnani  $pa\check{s}t$  cited by MORGENSTIERNE 1948:290), and that  $pa\check{s}$  is the Bal. result of OIr.  $pas\check{c}a$ . kas may be explained as NP loanword (thus also GEIGER 1891:452). This would be in line with the other NWIr. languages, and with the development in word-initial position which seems to be \*sč >  $\check{s}$  as well: Bal.  $\check{s}anik(k)$ 

<sup>256</sup> For the semantics, cf. p. 301, for discussion of the Psht. cognates, cf. MORGENSTIERNE 2003:83. For details in the development from Proto-Iranian to Avestan, cf. FISCHER 1998:84.

The variant  $tr\bar{u}$  was not known yet to Geiger and Bartholomae (for dialectal  $\bar{u} > \bar{\iota}$ , cf. p. 196ff.), otherwise GEIGER 1891:434 would probably not have made a connection with OInd.  $str\hat{\iota}$ - "woman".

<sup>257</sup> Cf. Moškalo 1991:32. On the etymology of the examples, cf. p. 88. *muzd* (EAL) and *duzd* (EVM) are also found, these are more recent borrowings from NP.

<sup>258</sup> Note, however, that HENNING 1958:98<sup>1</sup> is sceptical whether the relevant forms do involve \*-s-č-.

<sup>259</sup> For discussion of *pušt*, cf. p. 137, 147.

"young goat" has been connected to Av. *sčaini*- (HOFFMANN 1976b:493<sup>15a</sup>), Bashkardi *šen* and derived from \*sčani- (Wakhi *skən*) by GERSHEVITCH 1971:267ff.<sup>260</sup>

#### 2.2.2.2 Sibilant + nasal

OIr.  $\check{s}$  and s are assimilated to a following nasal in Balochi. It is not entirely clear whether this change is to be seen in the context of OIr. hm > m(m) and possibly xm > m (cf. II 2.2.1.3) or whether it proceeded via  $\check{s}N > \check{z}N > N(N)$  (cf. II 2.1.2.5).

**OIr.**  $\delta m > m(m)$  (GEIGER 1891:434):<sup>263</sup>

- *čam(m)* "eye" (Av. *čašman-*, NP, Prth. *čašm*);
- *šumā* "you (pl.)": from a form like Prth. *išmā(h)*, MP *ašmā(h)*, one could expect a result †a/im(m)ā;<sup>264</sup> an input form \*šmā (Av. *xšma-*, OInd. *yu-ṣmá-*) might yield †mā since an assimilation which operates in postvocalic position may be expected to take place in word-initial position as well. Both †mā and †a/im(m)ā would be (nearly) identical to the pronoun of the 1pl., viz. *mā*, *am(m)ā* (cf. p. 115). Unless Bal. *šumā* has been borrowed from NP (thus GEIGER 1891:422),<sup>265</sup> the consonant reduction might have been prevented under the influence of NP *šumā* by the otherwise resulting identity with the 1pl. pronoun.<sup>266</sup>

<sup>260</sup> For further cognates, cf. Steblin-Kamenskii 1999:313. The vowel of Russian ščenok "puppy" adduced by Gershevitch does not seem to fit with the words of the other languages. If pāčin "male goat" (NP pāzan) belongs here (some word for "mountain" + \*sčani- "goat", cf. Orm. γar-canai), it cannot, as Gershevitch 1971:268f. maintains, contain the same \*sčani- since it seems unlikely that sč would go to č here and to z in NP which otherwise has s for sč.

<sup>261</sup> GEIGER 1891:434 assumes a loss of  $\check{s}$  due to inadequate marking of gemination in his sources. The change is not noted by Moškalo 1991. For MP sm, zm>m, cf. KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:209<sup>67</sup>.

<sup>262</sup> Note that the assimilation of OIr.  $\check{s}m$  is not likely to be a useful isogloss for NWIr. languages (KORN 2003:57), pace e.g. WINDFUHR 1975:461, who notes  $\check{s}m > hm$  for Balochi and some other languages.

<sup>263</sup> Geiger also cites  $p^h \bar{\imath} m$  "wool" vs. NP  $pa \check{s} m$ , but the existence of this word and the possibility of its derivation from \*pašmia- or the like are doubtful, cf. p. 178.

<sup>264</sup> In contrast to NP, Balochi shows prothesis in word-initial clusters, e.g. *istār* "star" vs. NP *sitāra* (cf. II 2.3.4), so one would not expect a form *šumā* to arise in Balochi.

<sup>265</sup> Thus GEIGER 1891:422. EBal.  $\check{s}aw\bar{a}$  would not speak against  $\check{s}um\bar{a}$  being a loanword since loanwords are indeed affected by the EBal. change m > w (cf. p. 232f.).

<sup>266</sup> Similarly, in some EIr. languages, the 2pl. pronoun is subject to a secondary modification, in this case by prefixing of the 2sg. pronoun (e.g. Bactr.  $\tau\omega\mu\alpha\chi$ o), which prevents its becoming identical with the pronoun of the 1pl. (cf. SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996:651a, 2000:227b).

**OIr.**  $\delta n > n(n)$  (GEIGER 1891:434):<sup>267</sup>

- gēnīč "coriander" (NP gišnīz); 268
- tun(n) "thirst", tun(n)ag,  $tun(n)\bar{\imath}g$  "thirsty" (YAv.  $tar\check{s}na$ -, NP  $ti\check{s}na$ , OInd.  $t\dot{r}\underline{s}n\bar{a}$ -): the reduction of \*turšn > tunn involves  $\check{s}n$  > n regardless of the way of the development (via \*turn:  $r\check{s}n$  > rn > n(n) or via \*tušn:  $r\check{s}n$  >  $\check{s}n$  > n(n)); <sup>269</sup>
- *nind* "sit" might involve a similar change if there was some protoform \*nišnd- (OIr. ni + nasal stem from  $\sqrt{\text{had}}$ ) involved.<sup>270</sup>

The NP loanwords *gušn* "hunger", *gušnag* "hungry"<sup>271</sup> show that the assimilation has ceased to operate.

<sup>267</sup> It is difficult to see how  $p\bar{u}nz$  "heel" (for variants, cf. p. 197) could be derived from Av.  $p\bar{a}sina$ - (NP  $p\bar{a}sina$ , OInd.  $p\bar{a}rsini$ -) as suggested by GEIGER 1891:434 (MORGENSTIERNE 1932:49). MORGENSTIERNE 1927:57 likewise doubts the connection with Psht.  $p\bar{u}nda$  assumed by GEIGER 1891:409. It seems, however, that at least Psht.  $p\bar{u}nda$  might indeed be connected to Av.  $p\bar{a}sina$ - (MORGENSTIERNE 1942:264, KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:204<sup>44</sup>).

Only in MARSTON 1877, GEIGER 1891:400 (from Marston) and EAL (maybe from the same source). kīnīč is also given by GEIGER 1891:400 (from PIERCE 1874) and EAL p. 52 (p. 81 misprinted kinīč), which is a form showing Turkish influence, cf. NP kišnīj etc. (HENNING 1963:195). The k- seen in CTurk. kişniş might be a hypercorrect development since old \*k- changes to g- in CTurk. According to BAILEY 1963:70f., NP gišnīz is secondary to gašnīz which he concludes from Pazand gašnīz and links to MPZ gašnak "small". In this case, Bal. gēnīč would have been borrowed from NP (or from some related idiom, cf. Mashhadi γešnīz) and show hypercorrect -č for NP -z. With regard to the fact that the MPZ word can also be read gišnag (MACKENZIE 1986:36), Henning's etymology of gišnīz gains ground. HENNING 1963 shows that there is no reliable variant gašnīz (which moreover could easily be derived from gišnīz by the common change of unstressed i > a, but not vice-versa, HENNING 1963:195), and – with Arm. ginj in view – proposes an etymology of \*grzna- "round" (NP gird, Sogd. γwrs) + diminutive suffix -īč (1963:198). He takes Bal. gēnīč as borrowed from MPZ gišnīč (1963:196). In any case, this word involves a change -šn- > -n(n)-.

<sup>269</sup> For these developments and for r, cf. II 2.2.3.2, 2.2.3.3, 2.3.2.1. EAL also has  $t\bar{u}nag$  (Coastal, Lāšārī),  $t\bar{u}n\bar{t}g$  (Coastal, perhaps from PIERCE 1874 cited in GEIGER 1890:150).

<sup>270</sup> The details are not entirely clear. SOKOLOV 1956:82 suggests that *nind*- might be built analogically to *sind*- "break". The cases are not quite parallel, though, since a past stem *nist* which would correspond to *sist* is only found in some IrBal. dialects, most dialects have *ništ* (cf. p. 96). Conversely, the past stem *nist* might be due to the influence of *sist*. HÜBSCHMANN's explanation (1893:101) for NP *nišīn*- (\*ni-šīd-nā-) is less good than the one by SIMS-WILLIAMS (1981:166), who assumes an assimilation of *n...d/δ* (cf. Prth. *nišīδ*-, MPM *nišīy*-) > *n...n*, which accounts both for MPZ/NP *nišīn*- and the caus. *nišān*-.

<sup>271</sup> NP *gušna* is analogically modelled on *tišna* "thirsty" (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:92). *gušn* is a NWIr. form for reasons of its š for PIE \*ks (cf. p. 92), the genuine NP form being *gurs* (KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:208ff.). For further discussion of this word, cf. p. 100, 178.

### **OIr.** (non-Persian) sn > n (GEIGER 1891:434):

- If nōd "cloud" is to be connected with Av. snaoδa- (hapax from the Vidēvdād),
   MPZ snōy, it could belong here;
- $niš\bar{a}r$  "daughter-in-law" may be another example: although one might expect OIr. \*hnušā- corresponding to OInd. snuṣā-, the Ir. forms must or may be derived from OIr. \*snušā-, e.g. NP  $sun\bar{a}r$ . MORGENSTIERNE's assumption (1927:55, 2003:55) of a borrowing from Psht.  $nặ\bar{o}r$  does not seem necessary (nor even quite likely, given the difference in form) since  $niš\bar{a}r$  may be the regular Bal. outcome of \*snušā- (for Bal. u > i in palatal context, cf. p. 195f.). The -r must be analogical (MORGENSTIERNE 1932:44) in any case, e.g. on the model of  $gwah\bar{a}r$  "sister".

### 2.2.2.3 Sibilant + sonorant

**OIr.**  $\delta i > \delta$  (Geiger 1891:425):

The product of OIr.  $\dot{s}i$  (< PIIr. \* $\dot{c}i$ ) seems to be  $\dot{s}$  as in NP (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:152) and Parthian (RASTORGUEVA/MOLČANOVA 1981a:176). <sup>274</sup>

• *šāt* "happy" (Av. *šiiāta*-, NP, Prth. *šād*) and *šut* (suppletive past stem of *raw*-<sup>275</sup> "go", Prth. *šaw*- / *šud*, YAv. *šuta*-) could also have been borrowed from NP *šād*, *šud*, respectively;<sup>276</sup>

<sup>272</sup> For more discussion of this word, cf. p. 306.

<sup>273</sup> Cf. also Bactr. ασνωυο, Sogd. (with assimilation of *s-*) *šwnšh*, Shughni *zina*γ, Wakhi *stə*ҳ (ABAEV 1958/II:190, MORGENSTIERNE 1974:108, STEBLIN-KAMENSKIJ 1999:318, SIMS-WILLIAMS 1992:72, 2000:182a, EWAia II:771).

<sup>274</sup> A parallel development is already seen in YAv. which shows  $\check{s}_i > \acute{s}$  (HOFFMANN/FORSSMAN 1996:101).

<sup>275</sup> The present stem (also  $r\bar{o}$ -, ruw- (FBB, BMC), ray- (EAL: Raxšānī, Coastal, Sarāwānī), ra- (EVM, EAL: Raxšānī, Sarāwānī, Lāšārī)) is certainly a loanword from NP since \*rab- would have been preserved in Balochi (HÜBSCHMANN 1890:559), cf. KORN 2001:3<sup>20</sup>. The past stem rapt which may have been borrowed from NP raft is found in DTB. For etymological discussion, cf. HÄUSLER 2000. Cf. also p. 249.

<sup>276</sup> For devoiced final consonants in loanwords, cf. II 3.3.1.4. GEIGER's  $\check{s}u\delta a$  (1889:86, without giving a source) might come from the Kasrānī dialect which shows  $\delta$  for  $\vartheta$  of other EBal. dialects (cf. p. 231). Alternatively, it may be the EBal. form of borrowed NP  $\check{s}ud$ .

- $gu\check{s}$  /  $gu\check{s}t$  <  $gwa\check{s}$  / \*gwašt<sup>277</sup> "say" is most likely to be connected to  $\sqrt{u}$ ač "speak". Since it is not plausible that an EBal. form  $gwa\check{s}$  (< SWBal. \*gwač-) would have spread to all other dialects, one may derive the word from \*uač-ja-. 278
- Similarly, it seems most convenient to derive  $d\bar{o}\check{s}$  "milk" from \*dauč-ia-,<sup>279</sup> the preform which has been assumed for NP  $d\bar{o}\check{s}$  (past stem  $d\bar{o}xt$ ) and several EIr. forms (Henning 1958:111, Morgenstierne 2003:46). The past stem  $du\check{s}t$  is analogically made from the present stem.

### OIr. (non-Persian) $si > \check{s}$

From the admittedly little evidence it seems that the Bal. outcome of OIr. si (PIE \*(s)ki) is si:

- *šēnak*<sup>281</sup> "falcon, hawk" (YAv. *saēna*-, NP *sīmurġ*<sup>282</sup> "phoenix", MP *sēn*, OInd. *śyená*-);
- $\check{san}^{283}$  "black" (Av.  $sii\bar{a}uua$ -, OInd.  $\acute{s}y\bar{a}v\acute{a}$ -, Prth.  $sy\bar{a}w(ag)$ ) may indeed be the genuine cognate of NP  $siy\bar{a}h$  as MORGENSTIERNE 1932:51 cautiously supposes. OIr. OIr.  $\bar{a}ua$  is likely to result in Bal.  $\bar{a}$  (cf. p. 102f.), but a derivation of  $\check{san}$  from the Av. etc. form would leave the -n unexplained; as the root shows several suffixes, cf. OInd.  $\acute{s}y\bar{a}m\acute{a}$  "dark, black" (Nicholas Sims-Williams, personal communication), one might assume that it derives from a protoform with a different suffix.

<sup>277</sup> For these forms, cf. p. 218.

<sup>278</sup> This is the explanation e.g. by MEILLET 1925:18 for Av. *vaša*-. Av. *vaša*- has also been declared a cognate of Bal. *gwaš*- by GEIGER 1890:126 etc., who derives both from PIr. \*uaxš-. However, OIr. -xš does not otherwise yield š in Avestan or Balochi (cf. p. 112). Moreover, Av. *vaša*- means "surge, flow (thoughts etc.)" and corresponds to Vedic *vacyá*- "go rapidly, surge" (√vañc "go crookedly", HUMBACH 1956:75, HOFFMANN/NARTEN 1989:65<sup>96</sup>).

<sup>279</sup> Since OInd. has  $\sqrt{\text{duh}}$  (past part.  $dugd^h \acute{a}$ -), the Ir. forms should be \*dož- and must involve some analogical development (BARTHOLOMAE 1901:22).

<sup>280</sup> sāy- "shave" is not a counter-example, cf. p. 110.

<sup>281</sup> This word is not found in printed material, but was supplied by Azim Shahbakhsh and is also noted in 'ABDURRAḤMĀN PAHWĀL (Lutz Rzehak, personal communication). Up to now, the Av. and Pers. words were the only Ir. cognates known in the literature.

<sup>282</sup> sīmurģ comes from \*sīn-murģ (MP sēn murw). For Pers. nm > m, cf. SIMS-WILLIAMS 1990:11.

<sup>283</sup> Only in EAL 100: *šānēn mirč* "black pepper", and MAYER 1910. Mayer's *šā* might be an error for *šān*, cf. *šānwār* "black snake" (MAYER 1910), maybe a contamination of \*šān-mār (*mār* "snake") with *jānwar* "animal" (for which cf. p. 284).

Bal. syāh will be a loanword (HÜBSCHMANN 1890:559), cf. also III 3 for the colour terms.

A change of OIr.  $s_i > \check{s}$  is also found in other Ir. languages and has variously been regarded as a typically SWIr. or EIr.<sup>284</sup> feature (SUNDERMANN 1989:107). However, Georg.  $\check{s}av$ - "black" and Arm. compounds with  $\check{s}ava^\circ$  indicate that  $\check{s}$ - is the result of OIr.  $s_i$ - at least in some NWIr. idiom (HÜBSCHMANN 1897:489, Jost Gippert, personal communication).

If so, Prth.  $sy\bar{a}w$  "black" (the source of Arm. seav "black") and \*sin(a)marg (thence Arm. siramarg "peacock", cf. GIPPERT 1993/I:194) may have been borrowed from MP. Alternatively, one might assume that  $sy\bar{a}w$  and \*sin(a)marg are genuine Prth. words, which would imply that OIr.  $s\dot{i}$  gives Prth. sy- as it does in MP. If the latter is the case, Balochi goes back to a NWIr. idiom which differs from attested Parthian (at least) in the handling of OIr.  $s\dot{i}$ . The source of Georg.  $s\dot{i}$  and Arm.  $s\dot{i}$  ava° would then have to be a Balochoid dialect.

**OIr.** (non-Persian) -sr - > -s(s)- (GEIGER 1891:435):

•  $was(s)\bar{u}^{285}$  "mother-in-law" (NP xuš, OInd. śvaśr $\hat{u}$ -).

Word-initial sr- does not seem to undergo assimilation:<sup>286</sup>

- *srumb* "hoof" (NP *surū*, *sarūn* "horn") is explained by MORGENSTIERNE 1932:50 as a contamination from (the Bal. cognate of) Av. *srū* "horn" and NP *sum(b)* "hoof" or its Bal. cognate. The seemingly original form Bal. *srō* (BAILEY 1979:410b) does not seem to be attested anywhere (ELFENBEIN 1985:236);
- srēn "loins, (SHG:) backbone" (NP surūn, surīn, Av. sraoni-);<sup>287</sup>

<sup>284</sup> It is found in Sogdian, Khotanese (SUNDERMANN 1989:107) and Choresmian (HENNING 1958:111). 285 For dialectal variants, cf. p. 197.

<sup>286</sup> If  $\check{s}ar(r)$  "good" goes back to OIr. (Av.)  $sr\bar{\imath}ra$ - "beautiful" (cf. EWAiA II:669 concerning Sogd.  $\check{s}yr$  etc.), shows the EIr. development of sr-  $>\check{s}$ - and is therefore probably a loanword from some EIr. language, although no direct source is in sight (Psht. has  $\check{s}\imath$ ), Orm.  $\check{s}ir$ ), or may come from Prth.  $<\check{s}yr>$  (for which cf. SIMS-WILLIAMS 1989:171). The reason for the vowel quality of the Bal. word is not clear.

sum- "hear" if existing and if not borrowed from Urdu (cf. p. 147) will rather go back to \*srn-> \*surn- (for OIr. rn > n(n), cf. II 2.2.3.3) and not to \*srun-.

For variants of words with sVr-, cf. p. 205.

<sup>287</sup> For the vowel of srēn, cf. p. 202.

- *srup* "lead (metal)" (NP *surb*): Pashto also has *surup* (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:74), Gabri *surob* (HORN 1893:161) which may all have been borrowed from NP; if this applies also to Bal. *srup*, it must have undergone metathesis from \*surp;<sup>288</sup>
- $sr\bar{o}s$  "elbow" might also be an example, but the etymology is not entirely clear. <sup>289</sup>

#### 2.2.3 Combinations with sonorants

Similar to consonant clusters involving fricatives, some combinations with sonorants show specific developments.<sup>290</sup>

#### 2.2.3.1 OIr. r∂

#### $r\vartheta > hl$ ?:

If OIr.  $r\vartheta$  gives Bal. hl as in NP, this would be remarkable with regard to the fact that otherwise OIr.  $\vartheta$  gives Bal. t (cf. II 2.1.2.1).

- pahlawān "bard" (OP Parðava-, NP pahlawān "hero");
- puhl,  $p\bar{o}l^{291}$  "bridge" (NP pul, MP puhl, Prth. <pwrt>) < \*pṛðu- (Av.  $p \partial r \partial t u$  /  $p \partial r \partial \theta$ -) via \*purh- (cf. p. 121).

As both examples may be Pers. loanwords, the Bal. outcome of OIr.  $r\vartheta$  is not clear. On the other hand, no evidence is available which would suggest that Balochi shows something different from NP.<sup>292</sup> Since in the cases of OIr.  $f\mu$  and  $\vartheta\mu$  (cf. II 2.2.1.5.1, 2.2.1.5.2) likewise only the results known from MP/NP are found, albeit again in words which may be interpreted as loanwords, one might consider to assume that Balochi

<sup>288</sup> For this kind of metathesis, cf. II 3.1.3.1. All the cited words show a word-final labial which is not present in Av. *sru-* (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:75).

<sup>289</sup> According to Morgenstierne 1948:51, Geiger's 1890:146 connection to Shughni *čerost* does not hold. The preform might be \*srausa- which might have something to do with Av. *sraoni-* "loins", Bal. *srēn* (for which see above).

<sup>290</sup> There is an irregular loss of *r* in the past stems *kut* "did" (also *kurt*) and *gipt* (also *gitt*), cf. p. 144, 146.

<sup>291</sup> EAL *pul* can show the dialectal loss of *h* or may have been borrowed from NP. For variants and further discussion, cf. p. 147, 207, 211.

<sup>292</sup> Bal. cognates of the following MP words containing *hl* have not been found (yet): *ahlaw* "righteous" and its derivatives, *ahlomōγ* "heretic", *hamahl* "comrade" (OInd. *samartha*- "appropriate", cf. HÜBSCHMANN 1895:208), *păhlom* "excellent" (< \*parθama-, HÜBSCHMANN 1895:208).

indeed shows the same changes as does Persian.<sup>293</sup>

### 2.2.3.2 OIr. rš, rž

 $rš > \check{s}(\check{s})$  (GEIGER 1891:435):<sup>294</sup>

- bušk "mane" (YAv. barša-, NP buš, cf. p. 147),
- *šamōš- / šamušt*<sup>295</sup> "forget" (NP *farāmōš- / farāmušt*, Prth. *frāmōš- / frāmušt*, OInd. √mṛs),
- $mu\check{s}$  /  $mu\check{s}t$  "rub" (NP past stem  $mu\check{s}t$ , OInd.  $\sqrt{mrj}$  or  $\sqrt{mr}\check{s}$ , cf. p. 92),
- $ka\check{s}(\check{s})^{-296}$  "pull" (Av.  $kar\check{s}a$ -, NP  $ka\check{s}$  /  $ka\check{s}\bar{\imath}d$ , MPM  $kar\check{s}$  /  $kar\check{s}\bar{\imath}d$ ),
- $wa\check{s}(\check{s})$  "good" is a cognate of NP  $x^w a\check{s}$ , Prth.  $wxa\check{s}$ ; these are derived from PIr. \*huarša- < PIIr. \*suarćša- by KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:204, 297
- maybe tun(n) "thirst" (YAv. taršna-, NP tišna, OInd.  $tr\check{s}n\bar{a}$ -)  $r\check{s} > \check{s}$  (cf. p. 127). The same reduction has operated in NP and Parthian.

### $r\check{z} > \check{z}(\check{z})$ ?

It is probable that there is a parallel reduction of  $r\check{z}$ , but the only example is  $gu\check{z}g$  "root" which is only reported from Morgenstierne's informant, in EAL and maybe in Br.  $gu\check{z}\check{g}$ , it may go back to \*uržaka- (MORGENSTIERNE 1927:95, 1932:46, 2003:94).

As far as Parthian is concerned, the pair  $xoz^{298}$  vs. Arm. axorz "sweet" suggests that

<sup>293</sup> It has been assumed that MP <hl> represents a voiceless lateral fricative or something similar (HOFFMANN 1986:173, 178f., DE VAAN 2003:602). Bal. hl, on the other hand, does not seem to be anything else than /h/ + /l/.

<sup>294</sup> Geiger's examples *kiš- / kišt* "sow" and *gušnag* "hungry" can (*kiš-*, cf. 144, 148) or must (*gušnag*, cf. p. p. 127) have been borrowed from NP. Moškalo 1991:33 notes that PIr. \*ṛš gives *uš* (for which cf. II 2.3.2.1) and that OIr. *arš* yields Bal. *aš*. It seems more adequate, however, to assume a general change  $rš > \check{s}(\check{s})$ .

<sup>295</sup> For variants and etymological considerations, cf. p. 117.

<sup>296</sup> This verb (past stem *kaššit* (BMC, EAL), *kašit* (EVM), *kašt* (DTB, EVM, NAWATA 1981:16)) may, but need not, have been borrowed from NP. The past stem *kašt* might speak against a borrowing.

<sup>297</sup> These words (to which Zaz. weş may be added) point to PIE \*suelks "taste (sweet)" (KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:204<sup>41</sup>). The NWIr. form waš is also found in Persian (LENTZ 1927:304).

<sup>298</sup> Bactrian χοζο, Prth. <xwj> "good, pleasant" etc. are derived from \*xuržu- < \*sulgh-su- by SIMS-WILLIAMS 2000:232f. This implies that Prth. <xwj> is likely to have a short vowel; Arm. axorž (SIMS-WILLIAMS 2000:233) would seem to speak for xož (BOYCE 1977:100 has xōž, DURKIN-

rz > z has operated between the stage from which the loanwords were borrowed into Armenian and the stage of the Manichæan texts.

#### 2.2.3.3 OIr. rn

rn is assimilated in different ways in Ir. languages.

rn > n(n) (GEIGER 1891:435):<sup>299</sup>

- $pan(n)^{300}$  "leaf" (Av.  $par \ni na$ -, NP par(r) "feather", Prth. pannag "foliage"),
- sīkun "porcupine" (Av. sukurəna-, NP sugur, cf. p. 145),
- $din-/dirt^{301}$  "tear" (Av.  $d\partial r\partial na$ -, NP  $darr-/darr\bar{\iota}d$ ), if from \*dirn- < \*drna-,
- tun(n) "thirst" (YAv.  $tar\check{s}na$ -, NP  $ti\check{s}na$ , OInd.  $tf\check{s}n\bar{a}$ -) and derivatives (cf. p. 127), if not an example of  $r\check{s} > \check{s}$ , might also show rn > n(n).

NP has rn > rr, which occurs in the following loanwords in Balochi: <sup>302</sup>

- bur(r)-  $/ bur(r)it^{303}$  "cut" (Av.  $br\bar{\imath}na$ -, NP burr-  $/ burr\bar{\imath}d$ ),  $^{304}$
- dir(r)- / dir(r)it "tear" (NP darr- / darrid, see above) seems to be the product of some contamination (cf. p. 145),
- zar(r) "gold, money" (Av. zaranaēna, NP zarr, cf. also p. 311).

MEISTERERNST 2004:368a notes "/ $xu\check{z}$ /, / $x\bar{o}\check{z}$ /?"). For Av.  $x^varzi\check{s}ta$ -, MPZ  $xw\bar{a}list$  "most delicious", NP  $x^w\bar{a}l$  "food" etc. two possibilities remain: they may go back to PIE \*suelg´, an extension of which may be seen in \*suelk´s (NP  $x^wa\check{s}$ , Bal.  $wa\check{s}(\check{s})$ , Prth.  $wxa\check{s}$ , see above) as assumed by KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:204<sup>41</sup> or from \*suelg´h. In any case, \* $\sqrt{\text{suel}}$  "eat" seems to show two different extensions, i.e. \*suelg´h-s (> \*suelg´h-s) and \*suelk´s (< \*suelg´-s?), both being preserved in Parthian.

<sup>299</sup> The present stem *kan*- "do" (past stem *kurt*), which is also found in Bashkardi *kan*-, Osset. *kæn*-, Khot. *yan*- is probably the result of a contamination of the stems *kun*- and *kar*- (GERSHEVITCH 1970:172<sup>32</sup>) and thus, against GEIGER 1891:435, no example for rn > n. This auxiliary-like verb shows irregular developments in various Ir. and Ind. languages (for the past stem, cf. p. 146), for which cf. HOFFMANN 1976:587f. Parthian has kar - / kird. – For *sun*- "hear", cf. p. 147.

<sup>300</sup> GEB, BMC, EAL. *pan(n)* could also have been borrowed from Si. *panu* (thus MORGENSTIERNE 1927:57).

<sup>301</sup> DTB, GEB, GCD, EAL. Cf. also p. 145.

<sup>302</sup> For čar(r)- "turn" vs. čar- "graze", cf. p. 84, for tar(r)- "turn around", cf. p. 150. For geminates in loanwords, cf. II 3.3.1.5. The etymology of tir(r) "fart" (BUDDRUSS 1988:82) is unclear to me.

<sup>303</sup> DTB bar- "cut" is probably due to the immediately preceding entry bar- "carry".

<sup>304</sup> NP *burr*- will be from \*brna-, the past stem should be †birīd < \*brīta- and has been changed to *burrīd* to match the present stem (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:28).

Parthian has rn in  $zarn(\bar{e}n)^{305}$  "gold(en)" and in some loanwords (e.g.  $tarn\bar{\iota}s$  "throne"), and n(n) in pannag "foliage" and maybe in  $pann\bar{\iota}g$  "forehead" (if this is a Prth. word). If one assumes that Parthian shares the Bal. change of rn > n(n), the Prth. words with rr < rn (e.g. parrag "fin", parrag "fortunate", parrag "lamb", parrag "lamb", parrag "believe") are borrowings from MP. parrag "lamb", parrag "believe") are borrowings from MP. parrag "lamb", parrag "lamb", parrag "believe") are borrowings from MP.

Kurdish has r' (e.g.  $z\hat{e}r'$  "gold",  $dir'\hat{i}n$  "to tear", ASATRIAN/LIVSHITS 1994:97). <sup>308</sup> Zazaki seems to show r(r) in old sequences of \*rn (per "leaf", pir(r) "full") while secondary rn results in r(r)n (zerne "gold", bir(r)n- "cut",  $h\hat{e}rn$ -, erin- "buy" < \*xrin-), similar to the developments seen in Armenian (Jost Gippert, personal communication). Pashto has rn > n (GEIGER 1893:210, SKJÆRVØ 1989:404).

### 2.2.3.4 OIr. ur

### #ur - > r - ?

There are two verbs for "twist, spin",  $br\bar{e}s$ - /  $br\bar{e}st$  and  $r\bar{e}s$ - $^{309}$ , which one might want to connect with Av.  $\sqrt{\text{uruua\bar{e}s}}$  "turn, twist". The question is which one – if any – shows the genuine Bal. outcome of  $\#\mu r$ -. If the Ir. words (BAILEY 1979:218a, EWAia II:462 against MORGENSTIERNE 1973:337 and others) belong here at all and not with OInd.  $\sqrt{\text{ri}}$  "tear, rip", this means that  $\#\mu r$ - gives NP r-:  $r\bar{e}s$ - /  $ri\bar{s}t$  (KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:210<sup>67</sup>). Parthian has  $\bar{a}$ -rwis- /  $\bar{a}$ -rwist,  $\bar{a}$ - $rwis\bar{a}d$ . Bal.  $brin\check{j}$  "rice" (cf. p. 283) vs. OInd.  $vr\bar{t}h\acute{t}$ - is not a piece of evidence since it may be a Pers. loanword (thus GEIGER 1891:446), cf. MP  $brin\check{j}$ .

<sup>305</sup> In MP *zarr*, the second vowel seen in OIr. (Av.) *zaranaēna*- has already been lost in MIr. times. It is possible, however, that the vowel was preserved for a longer time in Parthian (Nicholas Sims-Williams, personal communication) so that *zarn* did not undergo the assimilation; it might also show the influence of Sogd. *zyrn*.

<sup>306 &</sup>lt;pnyyg> is derived from \*paranīk (cf. OP paranam "before, in former times") by HENNING 1940:26.

<sup>307</sup> Prth. rr is also the product of other assimilation processes, cf. DURKIN-MEISTERERNST p. 65.

<sup>308</sup> Khotanese likewise shows rn > rr, e.g. purr- "overcome" (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1989a:258).

<sup>309</sup> The past stem is rist (GEB, EAL), rēst (DTB), rēšt (GEB), rēsit (BMC, EAL).

<sup>310</sup> Georg. *asparez*- "racing track, stadium", Arm. *asparēs*, *asparēz* (cf. the co-occurrence of Av. *aspa*- "horse" and *uruuaēsa*- "turning point", cf. JANDA 1997:39, 179ff.) points to Prth. *r* as outcome of OIr. *ur* (GIPPERT 1993/I:16ff.), while Georg. *brinǯ*- / Arm. *brinj* "rice" suggests an outcome *br*- (Jost Gippert, personal communication) at least in word-initial position.

There are the following possibilities:

- Bal.  $r\bar{e}s$  may be a loanword from NP  $r\bar{e}s$  / rišt (MORGENSTIERNE 1936:337)<sup>311</sup> and  $br\bar{e}s$  the genuine variant, i.e.  $\#\mu r$  > br- (cf. Yaghn. riwes-, MORGENSTIERNE 1973:337);
- if  $r\bar{e}s$  is genuine (#ur- > r-), there must be another explanation for  $br\bar{e}s$ -.

With regard to the parallel doublets in Pashto ( $wr\bar{e}sal$ ,  $r\bar{e}sal$ ) which are not particularly likely to have been borrowed, GEIGER's assumption (1890:116) of some preverb (e.g. \*abi°) in  $br\bar{e}s$ - (similarly MORGENSTIERNE 1927:90 concerning Pashto  $wr\bar{e}s\bar{a}l$ ) seems to be the most convenient solution accounting for both variants in both languages. The possibility of Bal.  $r\bar{e}s$ - being a loanword remains (the existence of the zero-grade past stem rist does not speak for that, however), so there is no sure example for OIr. ur.

## 2.2.3.5 (Early) MIr. u(i)i-

Given the change of OIr.  $\mu$ -> Bal. g(w)- (cf. II 2.1.3.3.1), it seems possible that (early or pre-) MIr.  $\mu(i)i$ - was changed to gy- and subsequently to j- as in Persian:<sup>312</sup>

- $\check{j}\bar{a}$ ,  $\check{j}\bar{a}h$  "place" (NP  $\check{j}\bar{a}(y)$ ,  $\check{j}\bar{a}yg\check{a}h$ , MP  $gy\bar{a}g$ , Prth.  $wy\bar{a}g$ ); the word is likely to go back to \*uiāka- (KEWA III:271, Moškalo 1991:29);<sup>313</sup>
- $j\bar{a}n$  "life, soul, body" (NP  $j\bar{a}n$ ): it seems that a NWIr. cognate with wy- is not attested, Prth.  $gy\bar{a}n$  "soul" has been borrowed from MP (DURKIN-MEISTERERNST 2000a:360). It derives from \*\u00eai-\u00eana

<sup>311</sup> DTB assumes a borrowing from Psht.  $r\bar{e}\tilde{s}\partial l$  which, however, does not fit quite well in form.

<sup>312</sup> This seems to be the assumption by Moškalo 1991:29. I have not seen his variant Bal.  $j\bar{a}gag$ ; it might have come about through the suffix variation processes described in II 2.4.4.1.

MP spellings indicate that  $gy\bar{a}n$  "soul",  $gy\bar{a}g$  "place" changed to  $j\bar{a}n$  (KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:194),  $j\bar{a}g$  (Desmond Durkin-Meisterernst, personal communication), respectively, already in MP times.

<sup>313</sup> A proto-form \*ui-uāha-ka- (thus NYBERG 1974:83, 217) would probably have given Sogd. †yw'k vs. attested *wy'k* (Nicholas Sims-Williams, personal communication).

Bal. *jāgah* might have come into Balochi via Si. *jāgaha* (cf. ELFENBEIN 1990/II:70). For *gāh*, cf. p. 81, 121, for *kujā* "where", cf. p. 275.

<sup>314</sup> The etymology goes back to a note in ANDREAS/WACKERNAGEL 1931:322 (cf. the survey of the etymological discussion in SUNDERMANN 1997:12<sup>27</sup>), and is also noted by Moškalo 1991:29. The Prth./MP form is reflected by Kurd. *giyan*. Zazaki might show a secondary development in *gan*, *can* "life, soul", but probably preserves the earlier stage in *gian*, *cian daene* "to earn, make profit" (Mesut Keskin, personal communication).

Evidence for a process Bal. gy-,  $g\bar{\iota}$ - j- may be seen in the variant  $j\bar{a}b\bar{a}n$  (YŪSEFIYĀN 1992:101) "desert" (vs. usual  $g\bar{\iota}ab\bar{a}n$ , cf. p. 279). However, as the Bal. words are identical to the NP ones, it is equally possible that they have been borrowed from NP (thus GEIGER 1891:451f.).

On the other hand, Bal.  $g\bar{n}$  "breath" has been derived from \*\u03c4\u03c4-ana- (likewise from vi +  $\sqrt{a}$ ni) by GERSHEVITCH 1998:120ff. This etymology appears clearly superior to the previous derivation from \*\u03c4\u03c4\u03c4na-.^{315} In the light of the discussion in II 2.1.3.4.2, it seems possible to derive Bal.  $g\bar{n}$  from \*\u03c4\u0

#### 2.2.4 Miscellaneous consonant clusters

GEIGER 1891 reports various additional simplifications of consonant clusters which do not hold.<sup>316</sup> These as well as other OIr. consonant clusters the Bal. result of which is not clear are presented here.

#### \*ts

On the basis of  $gwa\check{c}(\check{c})$  "buffalo calf", GEIGER 1891:424 assumes that OInd. ts ( $vats\acute{a}$ -"calf") corresponds to Bal.  $\check{c}$ . There is, however, good reason to regard  $gwa\check{c}(\check{c})$  as a borrowing from Sindhi (cf. p. 280). gwask "calf" also adduced for the same context by Geiger does not correspond to an OInd. form with ts either (cf. p. 100). The only other example for this context would be  $m\bar{a}h\bar{t}g$  "fish", which for reasons of its -h- (instead of NWIr. -s- $^{317}$ ) must have been borrowed from NP (pace MoŠKALO 1991:36).

<sup>315</sup> To the arguments adduced by Gershevitch, one might add that the old etymology may be expected to yield Bal. †gēn. Although a change  $\bar{e} > \bar{\iota}$  does occasionally occur (cf. II 3.1.2.3.2), an etymology which does not require this assumption seems preferable. GERSHEVITCH 1998:115, 124 himself assumes that PIr. ain, MIr.  $\bar{e}n$  regularly gives Bal.  $\bar{i}n$ , which seems to be unfounded (cf. II 2.3.3).

<sup>316</sup> For other losses assumed by GEIGER 1891:435, cf. p. 87 (alleged loss of  $p < \text{OIr. } sp < *ku \text{ in } \bar{a}sin$  "iron"), p. 124f. (#st- > t-), p. 105f. (#ni-). Cf. also the chapters on dialects (II 3.2).

<sup>317</sup> OInd.  $m ilde{a}tsya$ - corresponds to OIr. \*massia- (or rather: \*macia-, Jost Gippert, personal communication) which gives (with vrddhi and suffix -ka-) OP \*ma\ddta(i)iaka- > MP  $m ilde{a}h ilde{t}g$ , Prth.  $m ilde{a}syag$  (HOFFMANN 1976/II:637<sup>25</sup>). For Bal.  $ma ilde{c}( ilde{c})\bar{\iota}$ , cf. p. 274.

št

GEIGER 1891:434 assumes that  $\check{s}t$  is reduced to t, but the two examples he adduces,  $\bar{t}t$  "brick" and  $p^hut$  "back" (both only attested in the old sources) may have been borrowed from Ind. languages, cf. Hindi  $\bar{t}t$ , Si.  $pu\underline{t}^h\bar{o}$ , respectively.  $i\check{s}t$  (cf. p. 156f.) and  $pu\check{s}t$  (cf. p. 147) can be the genuine forms, although they might also be NP borrowings.

#### st

Conversely, there might be a reduction of a word-final consonant cluster in *mis(s)* "urine" which stands for \*mist according to ELFENBEIN 1990/II:120.<sup>318</sup>

#### Other losses

Geiger's  $gw\bar{a}nj$ - "cry" is probably the result of a back-formation: DTB has  $gw\bar{a}nk$  jan-

Other reductions of final consonant clusters enumerated by GEIGER 1891:435 are probably due to specific phenomena:<sup>321</sup>

- truš besides trupš etc. "sour" has been borrowed from NP turš (cf. p. 145, 209);
- $r\bar{o}$  "day" besides normal  $r\bar{o}\check{c}$  might be a back-formation from a phrase like  $r\bar{o}\check{c}$   $\check{s}ut$  "day has come" > \* $r\bar{o}$ - $\check{s}ut$ ;
- gar "abyss", for which GEIGER 1891:400, 414f. assumes a loss of a final consonant (vs. Av. gərəδa- "cave") may be explained as a cognate of Av. ga<sup>i</sup>ri- (cf. p. 150, 220);
- *mar* "man" besides usual *mard* (borrowed from NP) is likely to involve a secondary change, cf. p. 220.

<sup>318</sup> This word belongs to  $m\bar{e}z$ - /  $m\bar{e}st$  "urinate" (cf. p. 88).

<sup>319</sup> For *gwānk* "cry", cf. p. 99, for *jan- / jat* "strike", cf. p. 86.

<sup>320</sup> Note that this means that *gwānj-ag* is not a cognate of NP *bāng- / bāngīd* as GEIGER 1890:126 assumes. For the implications with regard to the etymology of the Khot. and other cognates, cf. GERSHEVITCH 1971:283f.

<sup>321</sup> For the other examples of GEIGER 1891:435f., i.e. sak(k) "hard", cf. p. 112, for *gipt* (past stem of *gir*- "take"), cf. p. 144, for voiced consonants instead of voiceless ones, cf. II 3.3.1.6.

#### 2.3 Vowels

#### 2.3.1 Simple vowels

As a rule, monophthongs are preserved in Balochi. 322

#### 2.3.1.1 Loss of vowels

In contrast to the statement just made, word-inital short vowels of polysyllabic words seem to be elided when in open syllable:<sup>323</sup>

• pa "for" may be derived from OIr.  $upa^{\circ}$ , OInd.  $upa^{\circ}$  (GEIGER 1890:139);<sup>324</sup>

<sup>322</sup> For ăuă, ăiă, cf. II 2.1.3.3.2, 2.1.3.4.2, respectively. For changes of vowel quality, cf. II 3.1.2.3.

<sup>323</sup> brēs- "spin" might be another example (cf. p. 135). – GEIGER 1891:434 cites some examples without giving a rule. Moškalo 1991:39 says that "word-initial \*a is lost wherever it constitutes a syllable of its own"; given his example Bal. par < early WMIr. \*apar, OIr. upari°, this should probably read "word-initial MIr. a in open syllables is lost". There seems to be no good reason, however, to limit the rule to any specific vowel. Moškalo's second example warnā "young" is likely to be a loanword (cf. p. 278). For šīnz "green-blue" vs. Av. axšaēna- "dark", cf. p. 113f. For loss of vowels in other contexts, cf. II 3.1.2.1, 3.2.1.2, 3.2.3.2, 3.3.2.1.

<sup>324</sup> Further Bal. reflexes of OIr. *upa*° have been seen in *pruš-/prušt* "break (itr.)", *prōš-/prōšt* "break (tr.)" (ELFENBEIN 1990/II:118) and *prinč-/pritk* "squeeze":

<sup>•</sup> Bal. pruš-, prōš- might, together with Khot. brūṣc- "afflict", go back to \*frauš- (EMMERICK 1968:107), but Ir. \*frauš- is chiefly found in terms for milk products or other food, and OInd. √pruṣ means "sprinkle" (BAILEY 1979:44a, EWAia II:192), so the semantics do not fit. If Khot. brūṣc- goes back to PIr. \*brauš-, PIE \*bʰreu̞s- "break" (BAILEY 1979:316a), Bal. pruš-, prōš- cannot belong here for reasons of its pr-. BAILEY 1979:234a, 298b considers connecting Bal. pruš- to Khot. burṣ- "burst", past part. pārṣṭa which he derives from \*u̯i-ruš-, \*pā-rušta-, respectively. For Bal. pruš-, he deems \*pa-ruš- (or \*frauš-, for which see above) possible. In any case, if the etymology of pruš-, prōš- involves a preverb, it is more probable that the verbs are to be connected to \*ruš- (cf. the Khot. words above) rather than to OInd. √ruj as GEIGER 1891:142 assumed.

alternatively, it might have been borrowed from early NP pa "in, on";<sup>325</sup> maybe it derives both from  $upa^{\circ}$  and from  $pati^{\circ}$  (in an irregular development) as does NP ba "towards" (GERSHEVITCH 1971:289<sup>42</sup>);<sup>326</sup>

- par (synchronically a variant of pa)<sup>327</sup> "for" (NP  $(a)bar^{328}$ , Prth. abar, Av.  $upa^iri^\circ$ , OInd.  $up\acute{a}ri^\circ$ );
- pač, pāč "open" (Av. apąš, NP bāz, Prth. abāž, OInd. ápāc-);
- pak(k)ār "necessary, useful" could be derived from OIr. \*upakāra- (cf. OInd. upakāra- "help"); it is, however, more likely that it is modelled (as a compound of pa and kār "deed") on its NP (ba-kār) and/or Psht. (p∂-kār) equivalent, or even borrowed from Pashto; borrowing would also explain the geminate (cf. II 3.3.1.5), which might alternatively have been motivated by pak(k)ā "ripe, cooked";<sup>329</sup>
- $p\bar{o}\bar{s}\bar{t}^{330}$  "day after tomorrow" is another example if the etymology (MORGENSTIERNE 1928:45, 1932:49) of \*upa-aušinational or rather (GERSHEVITCH 1964:84<sup>19</sup>) \*upa-aušah- + Bal. suffix  $-\bar{t}$  (the second element cognate to Av.  $u\bar{s}ah$ -, OInd.  $u\bar{s}as$  "dawn") is correct; 331
- sang "stone" (for variants, cf. p. 194, 244) may also be a case (cf. Av. asənga-, Prth. asang) if not borrowed from NP sang (thus GEIGER 1891:460);
- $mar\bar{o}\check{c}\bar{t}^{332}$  "today" might belong here if it goes back to \*ima-rauč-ī- (cf. NP im- $r\bar{o}z$ ) as ELFENBEIN 1990/II:100 assumes (against GEIGER 1891:436 who assumes a metathesis from \*amr $\bar{o}\check{c}\bar{i}$ ).

<sup>325</sup> This word is found in Judeo-NP (cf. the next footnote).

<sup>326</sup> NP *ba* is the result of two prepositions (MACKENZIE 1968:255): on the one hand, it derives from earlier *pa* "in, on" (attested in Judeo-NP) < MP *pad* "to, at" (which goes back to OIr. *pati*, HÜBSCHMANN 1895:21), on the other from <by> "to" likewise attested in Judeo-NP, according to MacKenzie a "specialisation" of MP *bĕ* "out, but", NP *bē* "without"; <by>, *bĕ* and the verbal particle NP *bi*- may be derived from PIE \*bhĕ "out" (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996a:185f.).

<sup>327</sup> The forms of pa(r) when used with pronouns may yield a compound with geminate, e.g. 1.sg. pamman, pl.  $pamm\bar{a}$  (BARKER/MENGAL 1969/I:80).

<sup>328</sup> For details in the prehistory of NP (a)bar, cf. KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:214.

<sup>329</sup> A connection to Prth. *pad-kār*- "contend, strive" with an adjustment in semantics due to the influence of NP *ba-kār*, Psht. *pa-kār* seems less likely (but note that EAL has a verb *pak(k)ār-/pak(k)ārit* "be useful"). ELFENBEIN's assumption (1990/II:114) of a borrowing from e.g. Ur. *upakār* "favour, benefit" has the disadvantage of the difference in meaning and the difficulty of an unparalleled loss of the initial vowel in a seemingly recent loanword. For EBal. *pakar*, cf. p. 186.

<sup>330</sup> For variants, cf. p. 216.

<sup>331</sup> For cognates, cf. MORGENSTIERNE 1928:45, GERSHEVITCH 1964:84f., EWAia I:236.

<sup>332</sup> BMC, EAL, NAWATA 1981:31, EBal. *marōšī* (DTB). SHG *marūčī* (besides the next entry *marōčīg*) seems to be an error. For the variant *marčī*, cf. p. 243.

Accordingly, the vowel deletion rule does not operate in monosyllables:

• the pronominal stems  $id^{333}$  and  $i\check{s}$ - $^{334}$  (both "this") do not lose the initial vowel; the vowel is analogically also present in the inflectional forms ( $id\bar{a}$  "here" (obl.), idai "of here" (gen.) etc., obl.  $i\check{s}\bar{\imath}\bar{a}$  etc., gen.  $i\check{s}\bar{\imath}(\bar{e})$  etc.).

It is not clear why the word-inital vowel has not been lost in the following examples:

- $an\bar{t}cag$  "forehead"<sup>335</sup> for which SHG gives the variant  $han\bar{t}cag^{336}$ : perhaps there was some influence of  $p\bar{e}\bar{s}-\bar{a}n\bar{t}^{337}$  (also "forehead");
- apūtag / (h)apītag (a certain plant which grows after rainfall, tastes a bit sour and is eaten with salt according to SHG), which is derived from \*a-pūtaka- by MORGENSTIERNE 1948:290.<sup>338</sup>

Maybe the secondary h- seen in some variants has prevented the loss of the vowel. On the other hand, the addition of h- (cf. II 2.4.1.3) would seem to be a more recent phenomenon than the loss of word-initial vowels.

The vowel loss only operates in old words. Loanwords (e.g. arab "milliard",  $im\bar{a}m$  "Imam", ulus "people") and words with dialectal loss of h- (cf. II 3.2.3.1) are not affected, e.g. apurs "juniper" (vs. Av.  $hap \partial r \partial si$ -),  $^{339}$  (h)abar "news" (NP-Ar. xabar).

For anaptyxis, cf. II 3.1.2.4, for prothesis, cf. II 2.3.4.

<sup>333</sup> The stem id might have been extracted from  $id\bar{a}$  "here" (cf. Av.  $i\delta a$ , OP  $id\bar{a}$  (GEIGER 1891:129), OInd.  $ih\acute{a}$  (EWAia I:202)) by interpretation of  $-\bar{a}$  as the ending of the obl. case (the obl. is also used in local function). If Prth. < "yd> "here" is to be read  $\bar{e}d$  (thus the dictionaries), it does not correspond to Bal. id or the OIr. cognates. Bal.  $\bar{o}d$  "there" (also  $\bar{o}d\bar{a}$ ) does correspond perfectly to Prth.  $\bar{o}\delta$  < "wwd> (cf. p. 101).

<sup>334</sup> The direct case is usually  $\bar{e}$ ,  $\bar{e}$  is (cf. V 1.2).

<sup>335</sup> GEIGER 1890:112, assuming that the original meaning is "fate", connects it with NP *anōša* "happy", which is rejected by HÜBSCHMANN 1890:555.

MORGENSTIERNE 1936:244 cites a preform \*ānīčaka- for Khowar *anič* and Bal. *anīčag* which, if not a misprint, is in contrast with \*anīčaka- in 1932:40, Av. *a¹nika-* and OInd. *ánīka-*.

<sup>336</sup> The EBal. form is (h)anīšaġ.

<sup>337</sup> As  $p\bar{e}\bar{s}$  is probably a NP loanword (cf. p. 179), the same applies to  $p\bar{e}\bar{s}\bar{a}n\bar{\iota}$  (EAL 126), cf. NP  $p\bar{e}\bar{s}\bar{a}n\bar{\iota}$ .

<sup>338</sup> Morgenstierne derives these from an Ir. root \*pt "decay" which he also sees in a couple of other words (cf. p. 212 for one of them), obviously PIE √\*peuH.

<sup>339</sup> MORGENSTIERNE 1932:52 reports Br. *hapurs* which might have conserved the *h*- (if it is not secondary here). For variants, cf. also p. 193.

### 2.3.1.2 OIr. a, i, u

Except for the cases just discussed, short vowels are preserved in word-initial and word-internal position.<sup>340</sup>

a > a (GEIGER 1891:404):<sup>341</sup>

- $am(m)\bar{a}$  "we" (Av. ahma-, NP  $m\bar{a}$ , Prth.  $am(m)\bar{a}h$ , cf. p. 115),  $a\check{c}^{342}$  "of" (Av.  $ha\check{c}a$ , NP az, Prth.  $a\check{z}$ );
- pač- "cook" (Av. pača-, NP paz-, Prth. pažag "cook" (noun), cf. p. 77), pas "sheep, goat" (Av. pasu-, Prth. pas), wat "self" (Av. x<sup>v</sup>a-, NP x<sup>w</sup>ud < x<sup>w</sup>ad, Prth. wxad, cf. p. 122).

i > i (GEIGER 1891:407):<sup>343</sup>

- išt "brick" (Av. ištiia-, NP xišt, cf. p. 95);
- *pit* "father" (Av. *pitar*-, NP *pidar*, Prth. *pid(ar)*), čin- / čit "gather" (Av. činao-, NP, Prth. čīn- / čīd, OInd. cinóti, cf. p. 84), gis "house" (Prth. wis°, OInd. víś-).

The assumption of a compensatory lengthening ( $i > \bar{\iota}$  when following consonants are lost) assumed by GEIGER 1891:408 appears to be unfounded (for  $\bar{\iota}t$  "brick", cf. p. 137, for  $p^h\bar{\iota}m$  "wool", cf. p. 178).

u > u (GEIGER 1891:409):<sup>344</sup>

• *suč-* / *sutk* "burn" (NP *sōz-* / *sōxt*, Prth. *sōž-* / *suxt* (GHILAIN 1939:63), cf. p. 87), *šud* "hunger" (YAv. *šuδ-*, NP *šuy*, cf. p. 92).

<sup>340</sup> For lengthening of vowels, cf. II 3.1.2.2.2, for change of vowel quality, cf. II 3.1.2.3.1, 3.1.2.3.4, 3.2.1.2, 3.2.3.2, 3.2.4.2, 3.3.2.3.

<sup>341</sup> Some of GEIGER's examples (1891:404f.) are questionable: *aps, asp* "horse" may be a loanword (cf. p. 90, 158-159), *jagar* "liver" surely is (p. 104, 204), *gwark* "wolf" and *gwarm* "surf" do not belong here (cf. p. 144, 150, respectively).

<sup>342</sup> For further discussion of this word, cf. p. 85.

<sup>343</sup> For GEIGER's example mič- "suck", cf. p. 95.

<sup>344</sup> Of GEIGER's examples, duz(z) "thief" must (cf. p. 88) and (h)uštar "camel" might have been borrowed (cf. p. 158).

#### 2.3.1.3 OIr. $\bar{a}$ , $\bar{\iota}$ , $\bar{u}$

As a rule, long vowels remain stable.<sup>345</sup>

 $\bar{a} > \bar{a}$  (GEIGER 1891:406):<sup>346</sup>

- $\bar{a}y$  "come" (NP  $\bar{a}y$ -, cf. p. 109f.),  $\bar{a}s$  "fire" (Av.  $\bar{a}tar$  /  $\bar{a}\vartheta r$ -, NP  $\bar{a}zar$ , Prth.  $\bar{a}dur$ , cf. p. 89),
- $z\bar{a}n$  "know" (NP  $d\bar{a}n$  /  $d\bar{a}n$ ist, Prth.  $z\bar{a}n$  /  $z\bar{a}n\bar{a}d$ ),  $gw\bar{a}t$  "wind" (Av.  $v\bar{a}ta$ -, NP  $b\bar{a}d$ , Prth.  $w\bar{a}d$ ),  $m\bar{a}t$  "mother" (Av.  $m\bar{a}tar$ -, NP  $m\bar{a}dar$ , Prth.  $m\bar{a}d(ar)$ ),  $am(m)\bar{a}$  "we" (NP  $m\bar{a}$ , Prth.  $am(m)\bar{a}(h)$ , cf. p. 115).

 $\bar{\iota} > \bar{\iota}$  (GEIGER 1891:408):<sup>347</sup>

•  $p\bar{t}g$  "fat" (Av.  $p\bar{t}uuah$ -, NP  $p\bar{t}h$ , Prth. fra- $b\bar{t}w$ , cf. p. 103),  $d\bar{t}t$  "seen" (Av.  $d\bar{t}ta$ -, NP  $d\bar{t}d$ , Prth.  $d\bar{t}d$ ).

 $\bar{u} > \bar{u}$  (GEIGER 1891:409):<sup>348</sup>

•  $b\bar{u}t$  "became" (Av.  $b\bar{u}ta$ -, NP, Prth.  $b\bar{u}d$ ),  $z\bar{u}t^{349}$  "quick" (NP  $z\bar{u}d$ ),  $g\bar{u}t$  "mud" (NP  $g\bar{u}h$ , cf. p. 81),  $was(s)\bar{u}$  "mother-in-law" (NP  $xu\check{s}$ , cf. p. 130),  $h\bar{u}k$  "pig" (Av.  $h\bar{u}$ -, NP  $x\bar{u}k$ , Prth.  $h\bar{u}g$ ).

 $\bar{u}$  is changed to  $\bar{t}$  in a number of dialects (cf. II 3.1.2.3.1).

<sup>345</sup> For shortening of vowels, cf. II 3.1.2.2.1, 3.1.3.1, for change of vowel quality, cf. II 3.1.2.3.1, 3.1.2.3.2, 3.1.2.3.3, 3.2.3.2, 3.2.4.2.

<sup>346</sup> For GEIGER's example gwānj-"cry", cf. p. 137, for nār- "groan", cf. p. 220.

<sup>347</sup> For GEIGER's example  $g\bar{n}$  "breath", cf. p. 136, the  $-\bar{\imath}$ - of  $s\bar{\imath}kun$  "porcupine" is not likely to be old either (II 2.3.2.1), so these do not fit here.  $p\bar{\imath}ruk$  "grandfather" might rather be a loanword (cf. p. 149), for  $m\bar{\imath}k$  "stake", cf. p. 200. For  $g\bar{\imath}st$  "twenty", cf. p. 279.

<sup>348</sup> GEIGER's example  $s\bar{u}\check{c}in$  (for variants, cf. p. 198) "needle" does not belong here since its  $\bar{u}$  goes back to \*au (NP  $s\bar{o}zan$ ); for  $\bar{o} > \bar{u}$ , cf. II 3.1.2.3.2). As to  $m\bar{u}d(d)/m\bar{\iota}d(d)$  "hair", it is not clear whether it goes back to \*au (as NP  $m\bar{o}y$  would suggest) or to \* $\bar{u}$  since OIr. cognates are lacking (OInd.  $\sqrt{m\bar{u}}$  "bind",  $m\dot{u}ta$ - "basket" are far from clear, EWAia II:366), Gabri  $m\bar{\iota}d$  also points to \* $\bar{u}$  (HORN 1893:223, HÜBSCHMANN 1895:200), and so does Pazand  $m\bar{u}i$  (KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:196).

<sup>349</sup> zūt and NP zūd probably go back to \*zūta- (KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:201), cf. Av. zəuuīštiia- "fastest", uzūti- "coming fast" (water), OInd. jūti- "hurry". ELFENBEIN 1989:640 correctly remarks that zūt may be a loanword. The same applies to GEIGER's examples dūt "smoke" (NP, Prth. dūd) and sūt "use, gain" (NP sūd). For devoicing of final consonants in loanwords, cf. II 3.3.1.4.

2.3.2 PIr. \*r

# 2.3.2.1 PIr. \*r/C\_C

# PIr. \*r > ir in palatal context, otherwise $ur^{350}$

Geiger seems to assume ar as the genuine outcome of PIr. \*r (cf. also GEIGER 1891:405, 413) which is changed to ir in palatal contexts (1891:407f.) and ur in some other cases (1891:409). This opinion may be concluded from the statements that burz is a loanword since the genuine form would be †barz (GEIGER 1891:407), that turs stands for  $tars^{351}$  (GEIGER 1891:409) and from the treatment of Bal. i and u. Similarly, Moškalo (1991:21ff., 37) assumes Bal. ar, ir and ur for PIr. \*r with no rule given except for the note that \*r\*s\* results in Bal. us\* and \*r\*s\*n in un(n). On the other hand, HÜBSCHMANN 1895:146f. maintains that PIr. \*r\* comes out as Bal. ir, ur under the same conditions as in NP, i.e. ur after p, b, m, w, and ir in other contexts (1895:143ff.).

It seems, however, that the Bal. outcome may be more adequately described as being *ir* only in palatal contexts and *ur* otherwise. The evidence is as follows:

# Possible cases of PIr. \*r > Bal. ar

Examples that might be adduced for ar are (GEIGER 1891:405, 1893:205):<sup>354</sup>

• *kan-* "do" (Av. *kərənao-*, OInd. *kṛṇóti*, Prth. *kar-*, NP *kun-*): *kan-*, might go back to \*kṛṇ- via \*karn-. However, it seems more likely that it is the result of a contamination of the stems \*kun- and \*kar- (cf. p. 133).

<sup>350</sup> This subchapter discusses \*r in contexts other than \*ri, \*rH. For the latter contexts, cf. II 2.3.2.2, 2.3.2.3, respectively. For an earlier treatment of this issue, cf. KORN 2003a.

<sup>351</sup> tars is mentioned in DTB, the verb tars- in ABG, both may be considered as borrowed from NP.

<sup>352</sup> The latter specification (the example is tun(n) "thirst") is not necessary since  $\check{s}n$  gives Bal. n(n) anyway (cf. II 2.2.2.2). Moškalo's example (1991:21) for  $*_{\Gamma} > ar$  is  $warn\bar{a}$  "young" which, however, might rather be interpreted as a borrowing (cf. p. 278). us (as result of  $*_{\Gamma}\check{s}$ ) in Moškalo 1991:37 is a misprint for  $u\check{s}$ .

<sup>353</sup> HÜBSCHMANN 1895:146f. does note some words with Bal. ur after non-labial consonants, which would be exceptions to his rule:  $g\bar{o}kurt$ , tun(n), turs (for which see below).

<sup>354</sup> For Moškalo's alleged example for  $*_{\mathfrak{q}} > ar$  see above. gurk "wolf" is cited by Moškalo 1991:23 as an example of  $*_{\mathfrak{q}} > ur$ .

• gwark "wolf" (Av. vəhrka-, OInd. vṛka-):
gwark, if it exists at all,<sup>355</sup> seems to be the older variant of gurk since there is an ongoing change gwa- > gu- (cf. II 2.1.3.3.1, 3.1.3.4). However, as in a number of cases the variants with gwa- and gu- exist side by side, gwark might also be explained as a hypercorrect variant of gurk.

The extremely rarely attested gwark is thus the only instance of PIr. \*r > Bal. -ar-. It is possible that there is a special condition here, e.g. that PIr. \*#ur- gives Bal. gwar-. The only other example besides gwark is guzg "root". If it exists and if it derives from \*urzaka- as Morgenstierne 1927:95, 1932:46 maintains (cf. p. 132 and below), it would rather speak against \*ur- > gwar-, although guzg might be a secondary development of \*gwazg (cf. II 3.1.3.4). It seems better to assume that gurk is the genuine cognate of OInd. vxka- and gwark (if existent) its hypercorrect variant. It cannot even be ruled out that gurk has been borrowed from NP gurg (cf. II 3.3.1.4).

# Cases of PIr. \*r > Bal. ir

Bal. ir occurs in the following examples of PIr. \*r:357

- $zird\bar{e}$  "heart" (DTB, GEB) may be the regular outcome of PIr. \*źṛdaṇa- (Av.  $z \partial r \partial \delta(aiia)$ -, OInd.  $h \dot{r} d(aya)$ -, Prth.  $zir\delta$ ). The modern form zird might have come about by reinterpretation of  $-\bar{e}$  as the indefinite article  $-\bar{e}$  (cf. p. 102).
- The vowel of *gipt* (DTB, GEB, EVM, EAL: Raxšānī, Kēčī, Coastal, Sarāwānī, Eastern, NAWATA 1981), *gitt* (BMC, FBB), *gīpt* (EAL: Lāšārī) < \*grpta- (cf. Av. *gərəpta-*) may have been influenced by the present stem *gir-* "take". 358
- *kirm* "worm" (NP *kirm*, OInd. *kŕmi-*) and *kiš-* / *kišt* "plant" (NP *kār-*, *kiš-* / *kišt*, Prth. *kār-* / *kišt*) may have been borrowed from NP (GEIGER 1891:444).

<sup>355</sup> Only in PIERCE 1874 (thence GEIGER 1890:126) and in EAL (probably from Geiger), all other sources have *gurk*.

<sup>356</sup> Cf. also II 2.1.3.3.1, 3.1.3.4. There is no evidence that Bal. *ar* might be the result of PIr. \*f-: there are no Bal. cognates of a number of OIr. words going back to PIr. \*f (cf. KORN 2003a:66). Assuming PIr. \*f > Bal. *ar*, one would have to explain Bal. *zird* and *kirm* as showing the change of ar > ir described in II 3.1.2.3.1 and tun(n) as deriving from \*tršná-.

<sup>357</sup> Note that there is a (presumably rather late) change of ar to ir, cf. p. 194f.

<sup>358</sup> NP has *girift*, Prth. *grift*. Zaz. has the past stem *guret*- which goes back to \*graft and is thus not parallel to the Bal. past stem. For the present stem, cf. p. 149.

• *din-*<sup>359</sup> "tear" might be derived from \*dṛṇa- via \*dirna- and the past stem *dirt* (DTB, GCD, BMC, EVM, EAL, FBB) from \*dṛṭa-. The better attested variant *dir(r)*- and the past stem *dir(r)it* (GEB, FBB, EAL: Coastal)<sup>360</sup> show that some contamination with NP forms (NP *darr- / darrīd*) must have occurred in this verb. NP \*dirrīd from which Bal. *dir(r)it* may have been borrowed would be the regular NP outcome of a secondary past stem \*dṛṇita-, and the present stem *dir(r)*- can be based on *dir(r)it*. Although the root is originally *aniṭ* (EWAia I:702),<sup>362</sup> the best solution for NP *darr- / darrīd* seems to be the one proposed by HÜBSCHMANN (1895:62): the vowel of the NP present stem \*dirr- (< \*dṛṇa-) seems to have been adjusted to the past stem \*dard- (< PIIr. \*dṛH-ta-), the latter being replaced by *darrīd*.

# Cases of PIr. \*r > Bal. ur

Most instances of PIr. \*r show Bal. ur:363

- apurs "juniper" (NP awirs, burs "fruit of juniper", Av. hapərəsī-, cf. p. 140);
- burz "high" (Av. bərəzant-, NP buland, OInd. brhánt-, Prth. burz);
- *turpš*, *trupš*, *trušp*<sup>364</sup> "sour" (NP *turš*, Prth. *trifš*, for further cognates, cf. BAILEY 1979:130a) < PIr. \*trfša-;

<sup>359</sup> GEB, DTB, GCD, EAL.

<sup>360</sup> EAL also reports dirrt which - if existing - may be a secondary formation from present dirr-.

<sup>361</sup> For -rn - NP rr, Bal. n(n), cf. p. 133.

<sup>362</sup> The only sure *set* forms in Avestan are those from the nasal present: part. act. sg. m. *dərəną*, act. 3pl. *dərənənti* (PRAUST 2000:438).

<sup>363</sup> *hūrt* "tiny" might be placed here, too, if the etymology given by Morgenstierne is correct (cf. p. 122); the quality of the vowel fits with the rules established below, the reason for its quantity is unclear, however.

 $s\bar{\imath}kun$  "porcupine" (NP sugur) would be a further example if it goes back to PIr. \*sVkṛna- which would imply that Av. sukurəna- stands for \*sukərəna-. There is, however, no direct evidence for \*r here, all Ir. cognates seem to go back to -ur- (cf. MORGENSTIERNE 1927:73), e.g. Sogd. \*sykrn (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1976:61), Psht. skun < \*sikurna- (MORGENSTIERNE 2003:78). The origin of  $\bar{\imath}$  (also in Gabri  $s\bar{\imath}xur$ , Kurd.  $s\hat{\imath}xur$ , NP  $s\bar{\imath}x\bar{\imath}u$  adduced by GEIGER 1891:408 and other variants, cf. HORN 1893:164) is not clear either. The Bal. form might go back to \* $s\bar{\imath}u$ ° (cf. p. 196), but the length of the vowel remains unclear. There is also a variant  $s\bar{\imath}nkur$  (BMC, EAL, MORGENSTIERNE 1932:50) which might have come about through "anticipation and subsequent dissimilation of n" via \* $s\bar{\imath}nkurn$  just as Wanetsi  $sung\bar{\imath}un$  (MORGENSTIERNE 1932:50).

<sup>364</sup> For discussion of the variants, cf. p. 207, 209. Borrowed truš is also used (cf. p. 137).

- *turs- / tursit*<sup>365</sup> "fear" may be a denominative of *turs, trus* "fear"<sup>366</sup> < PIr. \*tṛṣ-; alternatively, it may go back to PIE \*tṛṣ-ṣke- (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:47) as Av. *tərəsa-* and Prth. *tirs- / tirsād* do;<sup>367</sup> in the latter case, *turs* might be derived from the verb;
- tun(n) "thirst" (NP  $ti\check{s}$ , YAv.  $tar\check{s}na$ -, OInd.  $tr\check{r}sn\bar{a}$  f. "thirst",  $tr\check{s}n\check{a}$  "thirsty") < PIr.\* $tr\check{s}n\check{a}$  (for the reduction of the consonant cluster, cf. p. 127, 132, 133);
- $zurt^{368}$  (past stem of  $z\bar{u}r$ -) "taken" is best explained as a direct cognate of OInd.  $hrt\acute{a}$ -,  $\sqrt{hr}$  "take, bring" (as GEIGER 1890:153 seems to assume<sup>369</sup> and in spite of HÜBSCHMANN's 1890:560 statement that  $z\bar{u}r$ -,  $z\bar{t}r$  does not fit<sup>370</sup>), although there are no other Ir. cognates of this root (EWAia II:803f.);
- *šamuš- / šamušt* "forget" (OInd. √mrs, *mrsyá-*, Prth. *frāmōš- / frāmušt*), cf. p. 117;
- kurt<sup>371</sup> (past stem of kan-) "did" (Av. kərəta-, NP kard, OInd. krtá-, Prth. kird);
- gužg "root" of doubtful existence (cf. p. 132) is claimed by MORGENSTIERNE 1927:95, 1932:46 to go back to PIr. \*uržaka-;
- $g\bar{o}kurt$  "sulphur" (NP  $g\bar{o}gurd$ , cf. Av.  $gaok \partial r \partial na$  (name of a tree) is derived from \*gau-krta- "yellow (< milky) stuff" by BAILEY 1979:96a;<sup>372</sup>
- $mu\check{s}$  "rub" (maybe cognate with OInd.  $\sqrt{mrj}$  or  $\sqrt{mr}\check{s}$ , cf. p. 92).

<sup>365</sup> Also *trus-* / past stem *trusit* (GEB, EVM), cf. p. 209; the variant EAL *truss-* / *trussit* does not seem to be found anywhere else.

<sup>366</sup> NP tars- / tarsīd is best explained as a denominative of NP tars (Prth. likewise has tars).

<sup>367</sup> A past stem Prth. *tišt* might be found in *tištēn* "dreadful", *tištīft* "dreadfulness" etc. <tyšt> itself is not attested, the word in Angad Rōšnān Ib 13a is to be read <ryšt> (pace BOYCE 1954:126, 196), but the meaning is not clear (Desmond Durkin-Meisterernst, personal communication).

<sup>368</sup> BMC, DTB, FBB, EAL, GEB, NAWATA 1981:17.

<sup>369</sup> Note that Av. √zar also adduced here by Geiger belongs with OInd. √hr<sup>i</sup>, hrnīte "be angry" (BARTHOLOMAE 1904:1669f.).

<sup>370</sup> With regard to OInd. *hárati*, one would expect a present stem †zar-.  $z\bar{u}r$ - (which yields  $z\bar{\imath}r$ - in some dialects, cf. p. 197) and  $z\bar{o}r$ - (only ABG) are obviously formed by application of a principle that the present stem should be somehow "stronger" than the past stem. Analogical past stems are  $z\bar{u}rt$  (GEB, EVM),  $z\bar{\imath}rt$  (GEB, EAL) and  $z\bar{o}rt$  (cf. p. 202).

<sup>371</sup> BMC, EVM, EAL: Raxšānī, Sarāwānī, other dialexts have *kut* (DTB, FBB, EAL: Kēčī, Lāšārī, Coastal, Eastern), probably a phenomenon of "Allegro-Aussprache" (HOFFMANN 1976:587<sup>26</sup>).

<sup>372</sup> Av. *gaokərəna*- (also used as a name for Haoma) is interpreted as *gau*- "milk" + \*krdna- "resin" (from PIIr. \*krd "give resin"), thus "having white resin" (perhaps a term for the frankincense tree) by KLINGENSCHMITT 1965:31f. Bal. *gōkurt* cannot go back to \*okrd, however. Since Sogd. γwkt, γwqtt also speaks for \*-t (HENNING 1940a), the word for "sulphur" might rather be a different one than the Av. word for the incense tree, and derived from the protoform assumed by Bailey. GEIGER 1891:401 remarks that if *gōkurt* is a loanword from Persian, it has to be a very old one. HÜBSCHMANN 1895:147 lists it as an exception to his rule (see below).

The following examples may have been borrowed from NP:

- burt (past stem of bar-<sup>373</sup>) "carried" (Av. bərəta-, NP, Prth. burd, OInd. b<sup>h</sup>rtá-);
- bušk "mane", NP buš and YAv. barša- can be derived from PIr. \*brša- (OAv. -ərəš- > YAv. -arš-, cf. HOFFMANN/FORSSMAN 1996:91), cf. p. 165;
- purs- / pursit "ask" (Av. pərəsa-, NP purs- / pursīd, Prth. purs- / pursād, OInd. prcc<sup>h</sup>á-);
- pušt "back" (YAv. paršta-, NP, Prth. pušt, OInd. prsthá-);
- puhl,  $p\bar{o}l$  "bridge" (MP puhl, NP pul, Prth. purt, Av.  $p \partial r \partial \beta$ -, cf. p. 121, 211);
- gurk "wolf" (Av. vəhrka-, NP gurg, OInd. vŕka-), see above;
- *murt* (past stem of *mir*-, cf. p. 149) "died" (Av. *mərəta*-, NP, Prth. *murd*, OInd. *mrtá*-);
- murg "hen" (Av. mərəγa-, NP, Prth. murg "bird", OInd. mrgá- "wild animal");
- mušt (past stem of muš- "rub", see above), cf. NP mušt, OInd. mṛṣṭá-, cf. p. 92.
- *sun-* / past stem *sunit* "hear" if existing (it apparently occurs only once in Dames' texts<sup>374</sup>) could be derived from PIr. \*sṛ-n- (Av. *surunao*-, OInd. śṛṇó-) might also have been borrowed from Ur. *sun-nā* (Sabir Badalkhan, personal communication).

Some examples which are not easily explained as borrowings have -ur- after a labial: apurs, burz, šamuš-, gužg, muš-. HÜBSCHMANN therefore maintains (1895:143ff.) that PIr. \*r comes out as Bal. ir, ur under the same conditions as in NP, i.e. ur after p, b, m, w, and ir in other contexts. This would leave the other instances of ur unexplained, however, viz. turpš, tun(n), zurt, kurt,  $g\bar{o}kurt$ . The examples turpš and  $g\bar{o}kurt$  exhibit some sort of labial context, but in tun(n), zurt and kurt, there is no labial element whatsoever.

One might therefore assume a rule which is in some sense the mirror of the NP

<sup>373</sup> The 3sg. has irregular  $b\bar{a}$  (FBB),  $b\bar{a}rt$  (BMC) which makes it less probable that the verb has been borrowed from NP.

<sup>374</sup> It is not even mentioned in DTB. The usual word for "hear" is  $u\check{s}kun$ - /  $u\check{s}kut$  (with numerous variants, cf. p. 196, 236) which has been explained as a compound of "ear" (Av.  $u\check{s}$ -) and "do" (kan-/ ku(r)t, cf. Morgenstierne 1932:41). According to Gershevitch 1998, it derives from a phrase \* $u\check{s}ii\bar{a}$  uaina- (past stem \* $u\check{a}ia$ -) "perceive by means of audition" > \* $u\check{s}V$  gīn- (past stem \* $g\bar{e}t$ ) >  $u\check{s}kin$ - /  $u\check{s}kit$ , which implies a change of \* $u\check{a}$ n > Bal.  $u\check{m}$ n, a subsequent shortening of the vowel and an analogical adjustment of the past stem. While Gershevitch's reserves against Morgenstierne's etymology seem well justified, his solution does not appear entirely convincing either: MIr.  $u\check{e}n$  is preserved in Balochi as a rule (cf. p. 151); the occasional change of  $u\check{e}$  >  $u\check{e}$  (cf. II 3.1.2.3.2) appears to be a rather late phenomenon (the same may apply to shortening of  $u\check{e}$ , for which cf. p. 187).

situation: PIr. r gives Bal. r in palatal contexts and ur otherwise. The case is made even stronger by the fact that palalisation of u and a next to r is common (cf. II 3.1.2.3.1), so that preserved ur deserves special attention.

The rule "PIr. \* $_{\circ}$  > ir /palatal, > ur otherwise" would account for all the instances of -ur- and explain  $zird\bar{e}$  < \* $z_{\circ}$ da $\dot{a}$ a- $z_{\circ}$  and  $z_{\circ}$  and z

It would follow that Balochi does not share the development of PIr. \*r which, when judging from the transcription of MP and Parthian e.g. in BOYCE 1977 and DURKIN-MEISTERERNST 2004, might seem to be a common Western Middle Iranian one. The contrast between Prth. tirs-/tirsād "fear", trifš "sour" and kird "done" vs. Bal. turs, turpš and kurt indeed suggests that with regard to the treatment of PIr. \*r, Proto-Balochi must have differed from Parthian.

<sup>375</sup> It might be possible to explain all instances of *ir* as palatalised outcomes of *ur* (and/or *ar*). However, the examples given in II 3.1.2.3.1 seem to be of a more recent nature and occur besides variants with preserved *ur*, *ar*.

<sup>376</sup> It is also possible to explain the i of  $zird\bar{e}$  as being due to the z-, cf. p. 193f.

<sup>377</sup> PIE has \*k<sup>u</sup>rmi- (EWAia I:394). The meaning of Av. kərəma- is unclear (BARTHOLOMAE 1904:469).

<sup>378</sup> MP has  $ku\check{s}$ - /  $ku\check{s}t$  both in MPZ and MPM according to MACKENZIE 1986. The verb may originally have been MIr. \* $k\bar{o}\check{s}$ - /  $ku\check{s}t$  "fight, kill" and, by forming a new pres. stem from  $ku\check{s}t$  and a new past stem from  $k\bar{o}\check{s}$ -, has been split up into  $k\bar{o}\check{s}$ - /  $k\bar{o}\check{s}\bar{i}d$  "fight, strive" and  $ku\check{s}$ - /  $ku\check{s}t$  "kill". Its cognates are the Av. hapax  $ku\check{s}a^iti$  "kills" and Tocharian B  $kau\check{s}$ -, A kos- "kill, destroy" (ADAMS 1999:208). The MPZ variant  $k\bar{o}x\check{s}$ - probably shows unetymological  $x\check{s}$  which in several cases occurs instead of MP  $\check{s}$  (cf. HORN 1893:239²). It is questionable whether any pertinent forms exist in Parthian (pace BOYCE 1977 who has Prth.  $k\bar{o}\check{s}$ - /  $k\bar{o}\check{s}\bar{a}d$  and  $ku\check{s}t$ , also in GHILAIN 1939:66), since e.g. MIK III (= formerly IB) 4970a R <k(.) $\check{s}$ yn'd> is to be read <'](x $\check{s}$ )yn'd> "princes" (Desmond Durkin-Meisterernst, personal communication). The Zaz. past stem kut- "beat" is evidence for the existence of NWIr. \* $ku\check{s}t$ , however.

<sup>379</sup> Note that according to MACKENZIE 1967:24<sup>25</sup>, PIr. \*r in non-labial contexts gave MP *er* or *ir*, both being written MPM <yr>, MPZ <r/l>. The former cases yield NP *ar* (e.g. *kard*), the latter *ir* (e.g. *kirm* "worm"). This assumption does not change the argument made here, though; regardless of whether the MP words are to be read *kird* or *kerd* etc., Balochi requires a rule different from that needed for MP and Parthian.

# 2.3.2.2 PIr. \*ri > ir?

The present stems<sup>380</sup> gir-<sup>381</sup> "take" and mir- "die" (Av. miriia-, OInd.  $mriy\acute{a}$ -)<sup>382</sup> suggest that Balochi has ir from PIr. \*ri, thus different from NP ( $g\bar{v}r$ -,  $m\bar{v}r$ -). A borrowing of the two verbs from NP (thus HÜBSCHMANN 1890:557, 1895:92 for gir-) seems less likely since one would expect Bal. †g $\bar{v}r$ -, †m $\bar{v}r$ -; and the past stem gipt etc. is probably not a loanword, since an irregular loss of the r is more probable with a protoform \*girpt than in a borrowing from MP grift or NP girift. It is not clear whether the loss of v in v-, vs. Av. v-, v-, v-, v-, MPM <pdyrw-><sup>383</sup> may be termed regular or not. The development might either have been \*gruia-> \*giru-> v-, v

With regard to the Bal. verbs, one might consider reading Prth. <gyrw->, <myr-> as girw- (thus BOYCE 1977 pace GHILAIN 1939:89) and mir- (vs.  $m\bar{r}$ - in BOYCE 1977, GHILAIN 1939 etc.), respectively. Although Prth. mir- would not prevent a reading of <gyrw-> as  $g\bar{r}rw$ - since the context is not identical, there seems to be no good reason to exclude girw- either.

<sup>380</sup> For the past stems, cf. p. 144, 147, respectively.

<sup>381</sup> Although the stem is *gir*- in all dialects, the 3sg. shows an unexpected long vowel in some (*gīrt* in BMC, EAL: Raxšānī, Lāšārī, NAWATA 1981:15, *gīt* in EAL: Raxšānī, BUDDRUSS 1988:73, *gīṛt* in EAL: Eastern) which might be analogical to 3sg. forms like *bārt* from *bar*- (cf. p. 189).

<sup>382</sup> GEIGER 1891:407 assumes that both forms had -ar- first which was then changed to *ir*; evidence for this assumption is lacking.

<sup>383</sup> MPM <pdyrw-> is found only once, the usual MPM form is <pdyr-> padīr- (DURKIN-MEISTERERNST 2004:272f.).

<sup>384</sup> Note that no Prth. †pīr is attested. Zaz. pir (i.e.  $/p\bar{\imath}r/$ ) is also likely to be a loanword. ANDRONIĶAŠVILI's assumption (1966:207) that Georg. ber- "old" is a loanword from MP is not plausible. – In NP  $p\bar{\imath}r < *pru(i)ia$ -, there seems to be no trace of the laryngeal seen in Av.  $pao^iriia$ - (for details, cf. FISCHER 1998) < \*pru(i)ia-, BARTHOLOMAE 1907:112, followed by GERSHEVITCH 1964:81f.). NP  $n\bar{\imath}r\bar{o}$  "force" might show a similar development (< \*nr-ia-ua-ka-, KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:196). – In the development of  $tr\bar{\imath}$  "aunt" from  $*(p)truii\bar{\imath}a$ -, irregular losses of elements must have taken place, although the details are not entirely clear (cf. p. 124f.). – The statements by MOŠKALO are somewhat confusing: on the one hand, there is a note that \*rui gives  $\bar{\imath}r$  (1991:22, the example being  $p\bar{\imath}r$ ) whereas 1991:37 states that \*rui results in ir; if the latter is not a misprint for  $\bar{\imath}r$ , it might allude to the example gir- which, however, is explained (1991:22) as coming from \*grbia-.

<sup>385</sup> DURKIN-MEISTERERNST p. 86 reads  $g\bar{\imath}rw$ - and (following HENNING 1934:206)  $m\bar{\imath}r$ - and attributes the long  $\bar{\imath}$  of both verbs to the specifities of syllable structure, comparing NP  $p\bar{\imath}r$  "old". The Sogd. cognates myr- "die" and  $\gamma r\beta$ - "know" likewise contain short vowels (GERSHEVITCH 1954:72, 92).

## 2.3.2.3 PIr. \*rH

The development of PIr. \*rH seems to be the same as in other Iranian languages.

# PIr. \*rH > ar:

- gwarm "surf, wave", cf. Prth. warm, Av. varəmi-, OInd. ūrmí- < PIE \*ulHmi-(HÜBSCHMANN 1890:558, EWAia I:245);
- sar "head" (NP, Prth. sar, Av. sarah-, OIn. śíras- < PIE \*kṛh₂os-, cf. HÜBSCHMANN 1895:150², EWAiA II:639), if not borrowed from NP sar;
- gar "abyss, precipice" (BMC, EAL), "pimple, boil" (DTB) is likely to be a cognate of Av. ga<sup>i</sup>ri-, OInd. girí- < \*g<sup>u</sup>rHí- "mountain" (thus Morgenstierne 1927:26 for Psht. γar) and not of Av. garaδa- "cave" (pace Geiger 1891:400). As it has been stated that cognates of Av. ga<sup>i</sup>ri- are only found in EIr. languages (Elfenbein 1989:636, SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996:651), one might consider Bal. gar as a borrowing from Psht. γar "mountain", but the fact that the meanings differ might rather speak against such an assumption; moreover, the word is also found in MPZ gar "mountain" (MACKENZIE 1986), NP place-names with Gar° (BAILEY 1979:80b), Prth. personal names with Gar° (Weber 2003:127).
- tar(r)- / tar(r)it "to turn around" might have been borrowed from Ur. tar- $n\bar{a}$  "to cross, pass over" which would also explain the gemination of the r (cf. II 3.3.1.5); alternatively, one might derive it from \*trh<sub>2</sub>- like OInd.  $tir\acute{a}ti$  (Avestan has the present stems titar-, taraiia-,  $ta^u ruua$ -), the -rr- then might result from analogy to the semantically very similar  $\check{c}ar(r)$  "turn" (cf. p. 84).

The result of PIr. \*rHt is Bal. art (cf. p. 189).

## 2.3.3 Diphthongs

The OIr. diphthongs ai, au come out as  $\bar{e}$ ,  $\bar{o}$  in Balochi as in most other Modern Iranian languages. For the secondary change of  $\bar{e} > \bar{\iota}$ ,  $\bar{o} > \bar{u}$  which has also taken place in standard contemporary Persian, cf. II 3.1.2.3.2.

<sup>386</sup> DTB, GCD, EAL *tar-/taraϑ-* "swim" is from Sindhi according to DTB (cf. *taraṇu*) or from Lahnda (EAL).

<sup>387</sup> Cognates include NP *gu-zar-* / *guzard*, Prth. *wi-dar-* / *wi-dard*, *wi-darād* "pass", NP *gu-zār-* / *gu-zār-* / *gu-zārd*, Prth. *wi-dār-* / *wi-dārād* "let pass" and Prth./MP *tarw-* "overcome".

# **OIr.** $ai > \bar{e}$ (GEIGER 1891:410):<sup>388</sup>

- ēwak "alone" (PIr. \*aiuaka-, Av. aēuua-, NP yak, Prth. ēwag "alone", ēw "one"), rēč- "pour" (Av. √raēk, NP rēz- / rēxt, Prth. rixt³89), gēč- / gētk etc. "sift" (Av. vaēča-, NP bēz-, bēxt, cf. p. 98), mētag "village" (Av. maēϑana- "house", NP mēhan "homeland", cf. p. 81), hēd "sweat" (Av. x⁰aēδa-, NP x⁰ai, cf. p. 123);
- $n\bar{e}m(ag)$  "half" (Av.  $na\bar{e}ma$ -, NP  $n\bar{i}m(a)$ , MP  $n\bar{e}m(ag)$ , Prth.  $n\bar{e}m^\circ$ ),  $\bar{a}d\bar{e}nk$  "mirror" (cf. p. 79),  $b\bar{e}nag$  "honey" (NP  $angub\bar{i}n$ )<sup>390</sup>,  $s\bar{e}nak$  "falcon" (Av.  $sa\bar{e}na$ -, cf. p. 129) and the adj. suffix  $-\bar{e}n$  (Av.  $-a\bar{e}na$ -, MP, Prth.  $-\bar{e}n$ ) etc. show that unlike in NP  $\bar{e}$  is also preserved in Balochi also when a nasal follows (GEIGER 1891:410f., pace GERSHEVITCH 1998:115, 124).<sup>391</sup>

For \*ai in other contexts, cf. II 2.1.3.4.2.

#### **OIr.** $au > \bar{o}$ (GEIGER 1891:411):

- $\bar{o}m\bar{a}n$  "desire" (Av. aoman- "helping", cf. also p. 186);<sup>392</sup>
- rōč "day" (Av. raočah- "light", NP rōz, Prth. rōž), sōč- / sōtk "burn" (Av. saoča-, NP sōz- / sōxt, Prth. sōž-), šōd- "wash" (Av. xšaoδah- "stream", NP šōy-, Prth. šōδ-), kōpag "shoulder" (Av. kaofa-, NP kōh, Prth. kōf, all "hill", cf. p. 81).

There is no necessity to assume that OIr. *au* may occasionally also result in Bal. *au*: *haur* "rain" mentioned by GEIGER 1891:412 might be a loanword (p. 158f.), for EBal. *bauf* "mattress" vs. SWBal. *bop*, cf. p. 203. For \*au in other contexts, cf. II 2.1.3.3.2.

<sup>388</sup> For GEIGER's example  $(b)r\bar{e}s$ - "spin", cf. II 2.2.3.4;  $g\bar{e}s$  "more" might be a loanword (cf. II 3.3.1.7.1).

<sup>389</sup> The Bal. past stem is  $r\bar{e}tk$  (FBB, BMC),  $r\bar{e}t$  (EVM, SOKOLOV 1956:81, NAWATA 1981:17), rixt (DTB). The existence of EBal. rixt makes it probable that Prth. <ryxt> is to be read as rixt (thus in GHILAIN 1939:94) rather than  $r\bar{e}xt$  (BOYCE 1977). For past stems in OIr. \*xt, cf. II 2.2.1.1.

<sup>390</sup> ELFENBEIN's assumption (1990/II:20) that the Bal. word has been borrowed from NP *angubīn* does not seem likely. According to Morgenstierne 1927:23, 1932:41, *angubīn* is not related to Bal. *bēnag* since the former goes back to *-p-* (cf. Av. *paēnaēna-* "consisting of honey", Orm. *pīn* "honey", Psht. *gabīna*), while the latter is a cognate of some other Ir. words all pointing to \*baina- "bee" (IEW 116).

<sup>391</sup> For the causative suffix -en-, cf. p. 107, for gin "breath", cf. p. 136.

<sup>392</sup> Av. *aoman*- is only attested once in the form *aomna* (instr.sg.). The strong stem \*aumān- needed for Bal. *ōmān* can be found in OInd. *omānam* (acc. of *omán*- "help, support"). It seems that no etymology has been proposed for the Bal. word yet. For Ir. cognates, cf. BAILEY 1979:309b.

#### 2.3.4 Prothesis

## CBal. sT- > asT-, CBal. $\tilde{s}T- > a\tilde{s}T-$ :

Clusters of word-initial s,  $\check{s}$  + voiceless stop are subject to prothesis in Balochi, Parthian and MP (in contrast to Standard NP which has siT-). Balochi shows i- in the majority of cases and sources, and the Prth. and MPM predominant orthography  $<^c$ -> has also been interpreted as i- in the relevant dictionaries. However, the older sources (cf. DTB and GEIGER 1891:405) cite cases of a-prothesis (besides i-, DTB, GEIGER 1891:408). As the change of a to i is common in palatal contexts like these (cf. p. 193f.), it is possible to assume that the prothesised vowel was a- first which then changed to i. Alternatively, one may assume that the vowel was a central one first which then produced varying outputs in the dialects. However, MPM and Prth.  $<^c$ -> does indicate a palatal vowel of some sort; it need not have been /i/ as suggested by the dictionaries, though.

## Examples:

- *ispar* "shield" (NP *sipar*, Prth. *ispar*)<sup>395</sup>, *ispulk* "spleen" (Av. *spərəzan-*)<sup>396</sup>, *istār*<sup>397</sup> "star" (Av. *star-*, NP *sitāra*, MP *istārag*, Prth. *astār(ag)*);
- *ištāp*<sup>398</sup> "haste" (NP *šitāb*, Prth. *awi-štābišn* "oppression"),<sup>399</sup> *iškand* "unfinished" (NP *šikan- / šikast* "break", cf. p. 124).

Recent loanwords are treated in the same way, e.g.  $isk\bar{u}l$  (BMC) "school". In the probably borrowed  $sp\bar{e}t$  "white" (Av.  $spa\bar{e}ta$ -, cf. p. 90),  $isp\bar{e}t$  occurs beside  $sip\bar{e}t$ .

<sup>393</sup> For OIr. sT > Bal. šT, cf. II 2.2.2.1.1. For anaptyxis in middle syllables, cf. II 3.1.2.4.

<sup>394</sup> EVM *adga*, *agdar* "other" (variants of borrowed *diga*(*r*) which has obviously lost the vowel first, cf. p. 283) can also be adduced here.

<sup>395</sup> Av.  $sp\bar{a}ra^{\circ}$  which HORN 1893:155 adduces here is of unsure meaning. It is not sure either whether OInd.  $p^h \acute{a}laka$ - "board, bench" etc. belongs here (EWAia II:202).

<sup>396</sup> It is remarkable that in the case of *ispulk*, Bal. shows the SWIr. word (MP *spul*) whereas in NP, the NWIr. variant (*supurz*) is used. The assumptions about *ispulk* by DAMES 1891:3 (borrowed from Brahui) and GILBERTSON 1925:628 (derived from the Engl. word) are not correct. For a recent discussion of the PIE word, cf. HAMP 2002.

<sup>397</sup> For the variant istāl, cf. p. 160.

<sup>398</sup> It is not impossible that Bal. *ištāp* has been borrowed from NP *šitāb* (for devoicing of word-final consonants in loanwords, cf. II 3.3.1.4). For further discussion of *šitāb*, cf. KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:217<sup>88</sup>.

<sup>399</sup> Additional examples with Prth. *iš*T- are *išmār* "number" (NP *šumāra*), MPM, Prth. *išnās- / išnāxt* "know, recognise" (NP *šinās- / šināxt*); no Bal. cognates of these have been found so far.

#### 2.4 Special phenomena

This subchapter summarises the discussion of some Bal. phonemes which come from several sources and involve certain peculiarities.

#### 2.4.1 Balochi *h*

In some dialects, h is lost (cf. II 2.4.1.3). Since words have continually been borrowed between the dialects, words with h- in many cases appear in the form of doublets with and without h also in those dialects which usually do not lose h. The existence of these doublets may lead to the emergence of hypercorrect (secondary) h. It is thus not always easy to determine whether a given case of h is genuine or not.

#### **2.4.1.1** Sources of Bal. *h*

#### OIr. h

As seen above (II 2.1.2.6), OIr. h is preserved in most Bal. dialects, e.g.

• hušk "dry", gwahār "sister", zahg "child", dūžah "hell".

#### x in loanwords

x in loanwords is rendered in most cases by h, but sometimes also by k (cf. II 1.2.2), e.g.

- NP-Ar. xabar "news"  $\rightarrow$  Bal. habar, kabar,
- NP-Ar.  $xar\bar{a}b$  "out of order"  $\rightarrow har\bar{a}b$ ,  $kar\bar{a}b$  "bad".

#### 2.4.1.2 Loss of h

Postvocalic h is liable to be lost, resulting in a variation  $uh / \bar{o}$  and  $ih / \bar{e}$  (cf. II 3.1.3.2), e.g.

- fātēā / fātihā / pātiyā etc. "memorial prayer" (NP-Ar. fātihā),
- $p\bar{o}l / puhl$  "bridge",  $suhr / s\bar{o}r$  "red, golden".

Similarly, ah gives  $\bar{a}$  in Western Balochi (cf. II 3.2.3.3), e.g.

•  $z\bar{a}g$  "child" (vs. other dialects zahg),  $b\bar{a}r$  "share" (vs. bahr),  $w\bar{a}d$  "time" (vs. wahd, waht etc.).

In some WBal. dialects, h is lost altogether (cf. p. 248), e.g.

• *abar* "news" (other dialects *habar*, NP-Ar. *xabar*), *arāb* "bad" (vs. *harāb*, NP-Ar. *xarāb* "out of order"), *awāl* "news" (vs. *ahwāl*), *wad* "time" (vs. *wahd* etc.).

## **2.4.1.3** Secondary *h*

The variation just described, i.e. doublets like *habar* vs. *abar*, *huš*- vs.  $u\check{s}$ -, motivates the emergence of hypercorrect h,  $^{400}$  e.g.

- hādēnk (GEB, EAL) vs. ādēnk "mirror" (NP āyīna, cf. p. 79);
- $h\bar{a}r\bar{o}s$  (ABG, BMC, EAL) vs.  $\bar{a}r\bar{o}s$  (BMC, EAL<sup>401</sup>) "wedding" (NP-Ar.  $^car\bar{u}s^{402}$ );  $^{403}$
- hariš (GEB, EAL), harš(a) (DTB) "ell" (NP araš); 404
- har(r)ag / ar(r)ag "saw" (NP arra);
- haškun- (EAL V) vs. aškun- etc. "hear"; 405
- $\check{j}\bar{o}h$  (BMC),  $\check{j}\bar{o}$  (BMC),  $\check{j}\bar{u}$  "river" (probably borrowed from NP  $\check{j}\bar{o}(y)$ , cf. p. 104, 200).<sup>406</sup>

For secondary  $\bar{V}hC$  arising from contamination of  $\bar{V}hC$  and  $\bar{V}C$ , cf. II 3.1.3.2, 3.2.3.3.

<sup>400</sup> The statement by Moškalo (1991:36) that secondary word-initial *h* appears in the SWBal. dialects only is not correct since several cases are also found in EBal. sources: *hariš* in Gladstone 1874 and Dames 1881 (thence GEB and probably EAL), *harraγ* in DTB and GCD (and in SWBal. sources).

<sup>401</sup> EVM  $\bar{a}rus\bar{i}$  is an error according to EAL 6. For the  $\bar{a}$ -, cf. p. 190.

<sup>402</sup> According to HÜBSCHMANN 1895:32, the classical Pers. pronunciation is 'arōs.

<sup>403</sup> As indicated in II 1.2.1, it is assumed here that at least the vast majority of the Arabic loanwords has entered Balochi via NP. As both Ar. <sup>c</sup> and ' are pronounced /'/ in NP, there seems to be no reason to assume a difference in pronunciation in any stage of Balochi. In the case of word-initial <sup>c</sup>, the Balochi evidence suggests that it is lost completely, and the relevant words are not treated differently in any way from those with word-initial vowel.

<sup>404</sup> While Avestan has \*arəθn- (OInd. aratní-, EWAia I:109), OP has arašni- (BRANDENSTEIN/MAYRHOFER 1964:104) resulting in NP araš. Even if Balochi shared the development of -θn- > -šn- (there is no second example for this cluster), hariš must have been borrowed from NP since OIr. šn is assimilated to Bal. n(n) (cf. II 2.2.2.2). For cognates of NP araš (the relationship to OP arašni- is problematic, cf. HÜBSCHMANN 1895:12), cf. BAILEY 1979:8a.

<sup>405</sup> For variants, cf. p. 196, 236, for the etymology, cf. p. 147.

<sup>406</sup> One might assume that -h in this case is somehow substituted for NP -y; this would imply that the -h is interpreted as a case of h with variant y (for this phenomenon, see below and II 2.4.3). Note, however, that BMC has a certain bias for overcorrect, if not hypercorrect, h (cf. II 3.2.3.3).

The interpretation of h as element which is optional in some contexts might facilitate its use as a separator of two adjacent vowels (cf. also II 2.4.3), e.g.

- sāhig, sā'ig<sup>407</sup> "shadow" (NP sāya), hamsāhig, hamsā'ig "neighbour" (NP hamsāya),
- *šāhir* (EAL), *šāhar* (ABG), *šā'ir* (BMC, DTB, EAL) "poet" (NP-Ar. *šā'ir*),
- *mahī* (FBB) "May" (Europ.).

In a couple of verbal stems in  $-\bar{a}$  (which are likely to go back to OIr.  $\bar{a}ia$ , cf. p. 108f.), -h- functions as a vowel separator and a morpheme separator at the same time:

•  $\bar{a}h$ - "come",  $z\bar{a}h$ - "give birth",  $s\bar{a}h$ - "shave" besides variants with -y- instead of h.

## 2.4.1.4 Bal. words with h- the NP cognates of which show secondary x-

There is a group of NP words which show unetymological word-initial x-(HÜBSCHMANN 1895:265). The corresponding Balochi words show h in several sources (GEIGER 1891:423), but none in others (see the table below). Variants with x- and k- are also found, which happen been borrowed from NP (cf. p. 65, 82ff.).

There are three possible explanations of the Bal. data:

- the variants with h- may be cases of hypercorrect h- of the type  $h\bar{a}r\bar{o}s$  (cf. II 2.4.1.3) or
- the variants with *h* may been borrowed from NP with the substitution of *h* for *x* as in *habar* "news" (cf. II 2.4.1.1).

In either case, the words without initial h- may be the genuine ones or represent the WBal. dialectal variants (cf. II 2.4.1.2) of those with h-.

• Alternatively, there may be a phenomenon of secondary h- in Balochi parallel to the NP one which results in secondary x-. In this case, the variants without h- would be due to the dialectal loss of h-.

The relevant examples are the following:

<sup>407</sup> For further discussion, cf. p. 87, 108f.

<sup>408</sup> Additional items with secondary *x*- in NP (no Bal. cognates attested) are *xirs* "bear", *xastū* "kernel",  $x\bar{e}\check{s}$  "plow". As far as the corresponding Kurd. words are concerned, *xak* "earth", *xav* "raw", *xamûş* "quiet", *xurme* "date" are likely to have been borrowed from NP, *ax* "earth", *hêk* "egg" and *hirç* "bear" may be genuine.

NP	cf.	Balochi		
xāk "earth" <sup>409</sup>		$x\bar{a}k^{410}$	$h\bar{a}k^{411}$	$\bar{a}k^{412}$
xām "raw"	OInd. āmá-		hāmag <sup>413</sup>	$\bar{a}mag^{414}$
xāya "egg" <sup>415</sup>	YAv. aēm		hāik, haik, hēk, haig <sup>416</sup>	ā-murg āyag, āig <sup>417</sup>
xurmā "date"		$k^hurma, \ xurmreve{a}^{418}$	$hurm\bar{a}(g)^{419}$	urmāg <sup>420</sup>
xišt "brick"	Av. ištiia-	xišt <sup>421</sup>	hišt <sup>422</sup>	<i>išt</i> <sup>423</sup>
xōša "ear of grain"			$h\bar{o}\check{s}(ag)^{424}$	ōšag <sup>425</sup>
Bal. cognates of NP words with secondary x-				

<sup>409</sup> NP  $x\bar{a}k$ , Kurd. ax and Mazanderani  $x\bar{o}k$  have been derived from \*āhaka- (cf. OInd. asa- "ashes") by MORGENSTIERNE 1942:266 and KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:213<sup>77</sup> and from \*āika- by GERSHEVITCH 1962:77, adducing Av. ai. Prth. <'y'g> "place" noted by BAILEY 1979:19b does not exist, the relevant text passage should be read <wy'g>  $wy\bar{a}g$  (ANDREAS/HENNING 1934:882) as is shown by the duplicate M 891b+ R 10 (Desmond Durkin-Meisterernst, personal communication).

<sup>410</sup> ABG.

<sup>411</sup> ABG, SHG, BMC, EAL; the corresponding EBal. form  $h\bar{a}x$  is found in DTB and GCD.  $h\bar{a}k$  is qualified as a loanword by GEIGER 1891:444.

<sup>412</sup> FBB, BMC, EVM.

<sup>413</sup> ABG, BMC, SHG, EAL; EBal. hāmag (DTB, GCD); the word is noted as a loanword by EAL 64.

<sup>414</sup> FBB, BMC, EVM.

<sup>415</sup> MORGENSTIERNE 1932b:56a derives NP xāya, MP xāyag etc. from \*āuia-ka-.

<sup>416</sup> *hāik* is found in EAL (Kēčī, Coastal), *haik* in EAL (Raxšānī, Sarawānī), SHG and GCD (*haix*), *hēk* in EAL (Raxšānī, Sarawānī), *haig* in ABG.

<sup>417</sup> āmurg is found in EVM, Nawata 1981:37, āyag in BMC, āig in EAL (Raxšānī).

<sup>418</sup> khurma is found in MORGENSTIERNE 1932:46, xurmā in GCD.

<sup>419</sup> SHG, BMC, EAL. According to MORGENSTIERNE 1932:47, this is an "adaptation of P[e]rs. xurmā".

<sup>420</sup> BMC, EVM.

<sup>421</sup> EVM.

<sup>422</sup> ABG, SHG, BMC, EAL; hišt is qualified as a loanword by EAL 68.

<sup>423</sup> BMC. For īṭ "brick", cf. p. 137.

<sup>424</sup> SHG, BMC, EAL; EBal. *hōšag* (DTB, GCD). *hōšag* belongs here if the etymology (GEIGER 1891:451, MORGENSTIERNE 1927:95 etc.) which connects the word to Psht. *wažai*, Kurd. *ûşî* "bunch" is correct. In MORGENSTIERNE 2003:86, Elfenbein opts for Bal. *hōšag* being borrowed from NP.

<sup>425</sup> BMC.

For NP  $x\bar{a}m\bar{o}s$  "quiet", <sup>426</sup> only the surely borrowed variants  $x\bar{a}m\bar{u}s$  (NAWATA 1981:38) and  $k\bar{a}m\bar{o}s$  (FBB) are found, and the same applies to xism "fury" which only turns up as xasm (EVM, NAWATA 1981:42).

The variants without h- are predominantly found in WBal. sources, so it is probable that they show dialectal loss of h. This would leave the variants with h- as the primary ones. The only item which may not be a loanword is  $\bar{a}murg$  (cf. p. 108ff.) which unfortunately is only attested in sources where all sorts of h are lost, so it does not tell us anything about word-initial h-.

There is some, albeit scanty, evidence that Parthian and/or some closely related dialect might have had h- in words where NP shows secondary x-: while most of the words cited above are not attested in Parthian, a possible candidate is  $hi\check{s}t\bar{\iota}g$  "brick". A second case is reflected by Georg.  $he\check{s}ma\dot{k}$ -, a variant of the more usual  $e\check{s}ma\dot{k}$ - "devil", and Arm.  $he\check{s}mak^\circ$  "idol" (cf. GIPPERT 1994:62<sup>17</sup>) while PrthT has  $i\check{s}mag$  "demons".

It appears possible that the Bal. words with h- might be genuine, even if it is hard to imagine how the secondary h- developed exactly in the same words as in NP and not in some of the countless other words beginning with a vowel. The possibility that all words from the table above (with the exception of  $\bar{a}murg$ ) are loanwords can thus not be ruled out.

#### 2.4.1.5 Bal. words with h- the Kurdish cognates of which also show secondary h-

There is another particular group of words with secondary h-, viz. cases in which the Kurd. cognate also shows secondary h-. Secondary h- is very common in Kurdish (SOCIN 1901:256: "überaus häufig in allen Dialekten"), e.g. hindik "few" (NP andak), hesin "iron" (NP  $\bar{a}han$ ).

<sup>426</sup> According to HORN 1893:103, NP  $x\bar{a}m\bar{o}s$  is composed of the preverb  $*\bar{a}^{\circ}$  and the root which is also present in NP  $far\bar{a}m\bar{o}s$  "forgotten". If so,  $x\bar{a}m\bar{o}s$  must have taken over the  $\bar{o}$  from  $far\bar{a}m\bar{o}s$  since the vocalism of the latter is the product of an analogical ablaut (cf. p. 117).

<sup>427</sup> As has been argued above (II 2.1.3.4.2),  $\bar{a}yag$ ,  $\bar{a}ig$  was probably borrowed from NP (dialectal variant of \*hāyag). For an alternative solution for the "egg"-words with h-, cf. II 2.4.1.5.

<sup>428</sup> In addition to the passage in BOYCE 1954:164f., the word also occurs in the unpublished fragment M 92 R 3a (Desmond Durkin-Meisterernst, personal communication).

The Bal. words with unetymological h- agreeing with Kurd. h- are the following:

Balochi		Kurdish	cf.
h-	Ø-		
haik, hāik, hēk, haig <sup>429</sup> "egg"	āyag, āig, ā-murg	hêk	NP xāya YAv. aēm
haps, hāsp, hāps <sup>430</sup> "horse"	asp, aps	hesp	NP asb Av. aspa-
hastal <sup>431</sup> "mule"	istal, istir	hêstir	NP astar OInd. aśvatará-
huštar, huštur <sup>432</sup> "camel"	uštir <sup>433</sup>	<i>hêştir</i> "she-camel"	NP šutur Av. uštra-
haur, hāur <sup>434</sup> "rain"	aur <sup>435</sup>	hor <sup>436</sup> "flow of water"; Awromani hawr <sup>437</sup>	NP abr Av. aβra-
Bal. cognates of Kurd. words with secondary h-			

In the case of "egg", it has been argued that all variants except  $\bar{a}murg$  will rather not be genuine as OIr.  $\bar{a}ia$  is likely to result in Bal.  $\bar{a}$  (II 2.1.3.4.2, 2.4.1.4).

It is of course possible that the items above are cases of secondary h- of the type  $h\bar{a}r\bar{o}s$  (cf. II 2.4.1.3). However, it is striking that all words denoting the bigger household animals (horse, mule and camel) show h- as they do in Kurdish, although it has to be admitted that the h-less variants are the better attested ones. Furthermore, it has been maintained for independent reasons that (h)asp and (h)astal are not genuine Bal. words

<sup>429</sup> For the attestation of the variants, cf. p. 156.

<sup>430</sup> GEB (cf. also p. 190, 241).

<sup>431</sup> For the attestation of the variants, cf. p. 161.

<sup>432</sup> huštar is found in GECB, huštur in DTB, YŪSEFIYĀN 1992:100 and EAL (also huštir).

<sup>433</sup> Also uštar (ABG), uštur (EVM).

<sup>434</sup> ABG (also hawar), BMC.

<sup>435</sup> EVM (h-less dialect), FBB.

<sup>436</sup> BLAU 1965. In addition, there is ewr (cf. Zaz. ewr) "cloud".

<sup>437</sup> MORGENSTIERNE 1932:46.

(cf. p. 90f.), and (h)uštar etc. is probably likewise a loanword anyway.<sup>438</sup> So it seems possible that they have been borrowed from a Kurd. (or similar) dialect.<sup>439</sup>

This might also apply to haur (in this case the h-form is the one attested in all Bal. sources for dialects with h) where other NWIr. languages also show h-. (h)aur cannot be a genuine Bal. word anyway because of its -au- for OIr. ab-, so that GEIGER 1891:415 already suggested that this word might have been borrowed from Kurdish.

## 2.4.2 Balochi *l*

The status of Balochi l is a peripheral one since it chiefly occurs in loanwords (including some the etymology of which was not clear to GEIGER 1891:416) from Indian languages, e.g. lankuk "finger" (cf. p. 293),  $l\bar{o}g$  "house, family". <sup>440</sup> In addition, a number of words show l where one might expect r, for which reason GEIGER 1891:415f. assumes that there is an occasional change of r > l.

The following examples of loanwords show l besides or instead of r:<sup>441</sup>

• *šak(k)al* (ABG, EAL), *šak<sup>h</sup>al* (DTB) for usual (NP-Ar.) *šakar* "sugar" (originally Indic, cf. LOKOTSCH 1927:147);

<sup>438</sup> Although the genuine Bal. result of OIr. (Av.) *uštra*- is not known and although it is possible that \*tr when part of a consonant group \*štr would develop differently from simple \*tr, it is likely that Balochi would rather show something like OP *uša*° "camel" (BRANDENSTEIN/MAYRHOFER 1964:149) as the development of PIIr. \*tr is the same in Balochi as in Persian (cf. II 2.1.2.4).

<sup>439</sup> If this assumption is correct, it hints at interesting implications about the economic history of the Baloch (cf. KORN, frthc. 3): they would have acquired the "use" of bigger household animals through contact with speakers of other NWIr. language(s) whereas the use of the smaller animals (sheep, goat) is probably traditional, as it indeed appears to be. Note that the word for "dog" might have been borrowed from Kurdish as well (II 3.1.2.2.1). Conversely, one might wonder whether Kurd. gîsk "young goat" has been borrowed from Balochi (or a similar language) gēs "female goat of less than one year" since word-initial OIr. μ- does not regularly result in Kurd. g- (ASATRIAN/LIVSHITS 1994:95); Bal. -ē-, Kd. -î- make it appear questionable whether Kurd. gîsk may be connected to MP wahīg "kid" and its cognates (OInd. vatsá- "calf" etc., cf. BAILEY 1979:274a) as assumed by ASATRIAN/LIVSHITS 1994:95.

<sup>440</sup> The word may have been borrowed from an Ind. language (e.g. Ur.  $l\bar{o}g$  "people, family"). It is also possible that the word is not a recent loanword, cf. Prth.  $l\bar{o}g$  "world",  $l\bar{o}g\bar{\imath}g$  "worldly" (borrowed from Middle Indic), but less likely semantically.

<sup>441</sup> The reverse process is seen in *takāsur* "calm" (ELFENBEIN 1991:115), SHG *takāsur* "restless" (for secondary nasalisation, cf. p. 215ff.), BMC *taksur* "tension" for NP-Ar. *takāsul* "laziness, negligence". The meanings noted in SHG and BMC are surprising.

- mōtal (ABG, BMC, EAL, SHG, FARRELL 2003:180) "car" for mōtar; 442
- *nalgis* (EAL) "narcissus" (NP *nargis*);
- *mālkēṭ* for Engl. "market" shows a popular etymology with (NP-Ar.) *māl* "goods" (FARRELL 2003:185);
- zalar (EVM) "harm" (NP-Ar. zarar) and zalūr (FARRELL 2003:180) "certainly" for zarūr (EAL) (NP-Ar. zarūr) "necessary" might be interpreted as a dissimilation;
- *balg*<sup>443</sup> (EVM, SHG, NAWATA 1981:37) "leaf" (NP *barg*) might have been borrowed from Dari (thus ELFENBEIN 1963:23), cf. the variant *balg* besides *barg* noted by AFĠĀNĪ-NAWĪS 1956:56;
- $d\bar{\imath}w\bar{a}l$  (ABG, BMC, FBB, EAL, SHG) "wall" has probably been borrowed from Ur.  $d\bar{\imath}w\bar{a}l/r$  (borrowed from NP  $d\bar{\imath}w\bar{a}r$ ).<sup>444</sup>

The following cases are not or not necessarily loanwords:

- istāl (BMC, EAL<sup>445</sup>, SHG) besides istār "star" (Av. star-, NP sitāra, Prth. astār(ag));
- $\bar{o}$   $\bar{s}$   $t\bar{a}$   $t\bar{a}$  e  $t^{-446}$  is a (according to EAL 11, mainly EBal.) dialectal variant of the "double causative"  $\bar{o}$   $t\bar{a}$   $t^{-447}$  of  $\bar{o}$   $t^$
- *bāzul* "wing"<sup>448</sup> vs. Prth. *bāzūr*, <sup>449</sup> Av. °*bāzura*-; the *l* may have been motivated by NP (Sistan) *panjul* "claw" (Behrooz Barjasteh Delforooz, personal communication);
- *als* "tear" is of doubtful existence (only found in MARSTON 1877 and EAL, the latter maybe taken from the former) besides usual *ars* (Av. *asru-*) which might have been borrowed from NP (thus EAL);

<sup>442</sup> The variant *mōṭar* (probably borrowed from Pashto) is reported by FARRELL 2003:180. In addition, SHG explains *mōṭal* as *mōṭar-kār*.

<sup>443</sup> The Bal. word must have been borrowed, cf. Prth. *wargar*, Sogd. *wrkr* (HENNING 1937:89, 1940:4). Apart from Parthian, a stem in *-r* is only found in Eastern Iranian (Sogdian, Khotanese). The existence of Av. *varəka-* is doubtful (HENNING 1940:4).

<sup>444</sup> The NP variant  $d\bar{\imath}w\bar{a}l$  (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:65) is maybe too rare to have been borrowed into Balochi. Pashto uses  $d\bar{e}w\bar{a}r$ ,  $d\bar{e}w\bar{a}l$ . ABG also has a variant  $d\bar{\imath}w\bar{a}l$  (cf. p. 182).

<sup>445</sup> The classification of *istāl* as literary by BARKER/MENGAL 1969/II:596 might be the reason for ELFENBEIN's assumption (1985:229) that the variant *istāl* is the "better" one.

<sup>446</sup> DTB, EAL; not mentioned by Geiger.

<sup>447</sup> BMC, EAL; the simple causative is ōštārēn-. Cf. also V 1.7.8.

<sup>448</sup>  $b\bar{a}zul$  is found in COLLETT 1983 and EVM ( $b\bar{a}z\tilde{u}l$  is likely to be a misprint for  $b\bar{a}z\tilde{u}l$ ). The more common variant is  $b\tilde{a}zul$  (for secondary nasalisation, cf. p. 215ff.). Baloch informants add that the word is also used in the sense of "arm of a baby" (pace ROSSI 1998:380, 420<sup>3</sup>).

<sup>449</sup> It seems questionable whether one needs to read Prth. <br/>b'zwr> with a long  $\bar{u}$  as do BOYCE 1977 and DURKIN-MEISTERERNST 2004:105b.

- *šapčal, čapčal* besides *šapčar* "bat" (originally "flying at night", HÜBSCHMANN 1890:560)<sup>450</sup> might involve a popular etymology with (borrowed) *čal* "go" (cf. p. 322) besides *čar(r)* "turn";
- *hastal* "mule" (DTB, EAL), *istal* (GEB, EAL; SHG *istil*) vs. *istir* (SHG); note that there is no common Balochi word for this animal (EVM reports *gātī* (NP-Turk. *qātir*) for Turkmenistan, FBB *xačar* (Ur. *xaččar*) for Karachi), some of the dialects presenting an obviously borrowed word. It thus seems probable that *hastal* etc. is also a loanword (NP *astar*, Kurd. *hêstir*).

Then, there is a group of examples with *hl*:

- hl < OIr. -rϑ: puhl "bridge", pahlawān "hero",</li>
   these cases might be loanwords from Persian (cf. II 2.2.3.1);
- hl < OIr. -fr: jahl "low", juhl "deep",</li>
   here, it seems that the examples exhibit a secondary development, gwahr "cold (noun)" showing the regular development (cf. II 2.2.1.4.2);
- hl < OIr. -xr: tahl "bitter", wahl "crooked",</li>
   again, hr (seen in suhr "red") may be the regular outcome although all the examples might have been borrowed from Persian (cf. II 2.2.1.4.2).

In contrast to the general merger of PIE \*r,l > PIr. r, Parthian preserves old l in some cases (KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:213<sup>79</sup>), but no example of old \*l is found which comes out as Bal. l. One might assume that the readiness to substitute l for r in Balochi has something to do with the Parthian heritage, but the tendency might as well be attributed to neighbouring languages (i.e. Dari, Pashto and Urdu). This is to a certain degree confirmed by the considerable number of loanwords where l appears in the place of r (cf. the examples above where the form with l may have been borrowed), which would speak for a rather late date of the process. It is thus not surprising that the substitution of l for r is a common phenomenon in the borrowed vocabulary of Karachi Balochi – a dialect in particularly close contact with a number of Ind. languages.

<sup>450</sup> MPZ has šawāg "bat" which is a derivation of šab "night".

<sup>451</sup> Both NP  $q\bar{a}tir$  and  $xa\check{c}(\check{c})ar$  come from Turkic, the origin of the word is Sogd. xrtr'k (HENNING 1946:723, for the history of the word, cf. also DOERFER III:392).

<sup>452</sup> For a claim that hastal might have been borrowed from Kurdish, cf. p. 158f.

<sup>453</sup> FARRELL 2003:180 assumes that the converse process is seen in *tōr*- "weigh" from Ur. *tōl-nā* (cf. BMC *tōl* "weighing; scales", same form in Urdu), but this assumption is not necessary since Si. has *tōraṇu* "to weigh". On the other hand, GCD *tōl- / tōlaϑ-* (for past stems in *-aϑ-*, cf. p. 186) is a loanword from Urdu.

#### 2.4.3 Vowel separators

There are quite a number of words with vowel hiatus caused by the loss of  $^{\circ}$ ,  $^{\circ}$  (cf. p. 63), h (cf. II 2.4.1.2, 3.2.3.1) or \*i. As a rule, this does not seem to present a problem to the speakers of Balochi (cf. p. 56, BUDDRUSS 1988:43), but even so, several consonants are in use (sometimes optional) as vowel separators, viz. h, y and w.

In some words, several vowel separators occur:

- $\bar{a}y\bar{a}n$ ,  $\bar{a}h\bar{a}n$ ,  $\bar{a}w\bar{a}n$  "those" (obl.pl. of the dem. pronoun  $\bar{a}$ , cf. p. 102f.),
- $s\bar{a}yig$ ,  $s\bar{a}(h)ig$  "shadow" (NP  $s\bar{a}ya$ , cf. p. 87),
- *grēw* (SHG, ABG, BMC, FBB, EAL: Raxšānī), *grēh* (EAL: Kečī, Coastal, Lāšārī, Eastern), *grēy* (EAL: Sarawānī) vs. *g(i)rē* (DTB) "weep". 454

A special group is formed by the verbs containing  $*\bar{a}$ ia > Bal.  $\bar{a}$  (cf. p. 109f.), which are found in the following forms:

- $\bar{a}$ -,  $\bar{a}$ y-,  $\bar{a}$ h- "come",
- *jā-*, *jāy-*, *jāh-* "chew" (cf. p. 103),
- $z\bar{a}$ -,  $z\bar{a}y$ -,  $z\bar{a}h$  "give birth",
- $s\bar{a}y$ -,  $s\bar{a}h$  "shave",
- $g\bar{a}$ -,  $g\bar{a}y$  "have sex".

The most common vowel separator is h (cf.  $\S\bar{a}(h)ir$  "poet" (NP-Ar.  $\S\bar{a}^cir$ ),  $mah\bar{\iota}$  "May"). The use of h as a vowel separator may be motivated by the existence of secondary h (mainly in word-initial position) which in turn is motivated by the dialectal loss of h (cf. II 2.4.1.2). The choice of vowel-separating consonants is used by ELFENBEIN 1990/II:VII as a dialect marker. As will be seen below (II 3.2, not always in agreement with Elfenbein's findings), h is found in Southern and Western (maybe also Eastern) dialects, w and y in Western dialects, y also in the Bal. dialects of Iran.

Parthian has vowel-separating h (RASTORGUEVA/MOLČANOVA 1981a:179); a vowel-separating h also occurs in Middle Persian (KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:212).

<sup>454</sup> The past stem is *grēt* (BMC, EAL: Raxšānī, Eastern; SOKOLOV 1956:81), *girē(n)t* (DTB), *grētk* (EAL: Kečī, Coastal, Sarāwānī, Lāšārī), *grēxt* (EAL: Sarāwānī), *grēht* (EAL: Raxšānī). *grē-* etc. cannot directly belong to Av. √garz as GEIGER 1890:124 presumed (BARTHOLOMAE 1890:552, HÜBSCHMANN 1890:557). It may have been borrowed from NP *girī-*; if so, a hypercorrect substitution of *grē-* for *grī-* must have taken place (cf. II 3.1.2.3.2). MP *griy-* is derived from \*gradia- by HENNING 1934:203 (cf. *miyān* < Av. *maiδiiāna-*), maybe \*grda- is also possible.

#### 2.4.4 Phenomena in suffixes

## **2.4.4.1 OIr.** suffixal $k^{455}$

In spite of the regular development OIr. k > Bal. k (cf. II 2.1.1.1), suffixes reflecting OIr. k show an apparently arbitrary variation of -k, -g and zero, and many words are found with more than one suffixal variant. However, it may be possible to establish some regularities (in part already hinted at by GEIGER 1891:421f.):

#### k- suffix after long vowel

After a long vowel, it is predominantly -g which is found:

- -īg: e.g. pārīg "last year", pīg "fat", šudīg "hungry", kānīg "well";
- -ūg: e.g. pahlūg "ribs", 456 jātūg "sorcerer";
- -āg: e.g. urmāg "date", gurāg "crow" (MPZ warāγ);
   užnāg "bathing", čarāg "pasture, grazing" (from čar- / čarit "graze").

However, -k occurs as well:<sup>457</sup>

- -īk: e.g. naz(z)īk "near", bandīk "thread", zamīk "field"; 458
- -ūk: zanūk "chin";
- $-\bar{o}k$ : e.g.  $g\bar{o}k$  "cow",  $n\bar{o}k$  "new"; <sup>459</sup> agentive suffix  $-\bar{o}k$  (MP  $-\bar{o}g$ ), e.g.  $w\bar{a}n-\bar{o}k$  "student" (from  $w\bar{a}n$  "read", cf. p. 101).

<sup>455</sup> For cognates of words already mentioned in the preceding chapters and references to further discussion, cf. the index in V 2. In this subchapter, the OIr. protoforms of all suffixes are marked by \* to indicate that not all of them necessarily derive from an attested OIr. suffix.

<sup>456</sup> *pahlūg* is a loanword since OIr. (Av.) *parəsu*- would give Bal. -*rs*- (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:44). The meaning indicates that *pahlūg* has been borrowed from MP *pahlūg* "side, ribs" (vs. NP *pahlū* "side"). For further variants, see below and p. 197, 253, 268.

<sup>457</sup> Some NP-Ar. words show pseudo-suffix with -k, e.g.  $sund\bar{u}k$  (BMC) "box",  $mahl\bar{u}k$  "people", EBal.  $sar\bar{\iota}x$  (ABG) "partner" which have been borrowed from NP-Ar.  $sand\bar{u}q$ ,  $maxl\bar{u}q$ ,  $sar\bar{\iota}k$ , respectively. Note that in those dialects which show gemination of consonants after  $\bar{\iota}$  and  $\bar{u}$  (cf. p. 242, 259), - $\bar{\iota}k$ , - $\bar{\iota}k$  appear as - $\bar{\iota}kk$ , - $\bar{\iota}kk$ , respectively.

<sup>458</sup> According to GEIGER 1891:444, Bal. *zamīk* has been borrowed from Persian. If so, the source may have been MP *zamīk* (for the MPZ orthography, cf. KLINGENSCHMIT 2000:201<sup>34</sup>). Cf. also p. 105.

<sup>459</sup> Early NP <nwkrwz> "new year" found in Abū Nuwās (cf. Henning 1958:88) is unlikely to represent NP †nōk° (vs. MP *nōg*, NP *nau*), but rather shows the use of the Arabic letter <k> for /g/ (Desmond Durkin-Meisterernst, personal communication).

In addition, suffixes without -k/-g occur:

- $-\bar{t}$ : e.g.  $l\bar{o}g\bar{t}$  "wife" (from  $l\bar{o}g$  "house");
- $-\bar{u}$ : e.g.  $pahl\bar{u}$  "ribs" (beside  $pahl\bar{u}g$ , see above).

## k-suffix after short vowel

Conversely, after short vowels, predominantly -k is found:

- -uk: bānuk "lady" (NP bānū, MP bānūg<sup>460</sup>), zānuk "knee", pīruk "grandfather" (from pīr "old", cf. p. 149); dajuk(k) "hedgehog";
   -uk is also used as a diminutive suffix on names, e.g. Māmaduk from Māmad / Muhammad (RZEHAK 1995:211), Maruk(k) for Maryam (BADALKHAN 2003:287);<sup>461</sup>
- -ak: e.g. kitak "insect", gwarak (also gwarag)<sup>462</sup> "lamb" (NP barra, MP, Prth. warrag); ēwak "alone";
- -ik(k): bačik(k) (also bač(č)) "son, boy, child", janik(k) "daughter, girl" (from jan "woman"), šanik(k) "young goat", kučik(k) "dog", pahlik (if existing, only in EAL), pālunk (EVM) vs. pallūnk (EAL) and the common pahlūg "ribs" (see above).

In addition, -ag is found in a huge number of words. Particularly interesting examples include words which cannot be interpreted as Pers. loanwords, e.g.  $k\bar{o}pag$  "shoulder", madag "locust" (cf. p. 95),  $m\bar{e}tag$  "village" etc. Other words have obviously been

<sup>460</sup> HÜBSCHMANN 1895:25 doubts the connection with Pers.  $b\bar{a}n$  "house" established by HORN 1893:41. GIPPERT 1993/I:35ff. draws the attention to MP <ktk-b'nwk> which in  $Frahang-\bar{\iota}\ \bar{o}\bar{\iota}m$  translates Av.  $d\partial mqn\bar{o}.pa\partial n\bar{\iota}$ - "lady of the house" (KLINGENSCHMITT 1972:23), and notes that  ${}^{\circ}pa\partial n\bar{\iota}$ - (with the NWIr. development of  $\partial n > hn$ , later > n with compensatory lengthening of the preceding vowel) can indeed give  $b\bar{a}n$ -; The genuine SWIr. cognate of Av.  $d\partial mqn\bar{o}.pa\partial n\bar{\iota}$ - can be seen in MP  $b\bar{a}n$ - $bi\check{s}n$  "queen". Bal.  $b\bar{a}nuk$  is thus highly likely to be a Pers. borrowing.

<sup>461 -</sup>*uk* combines with an element l of unclear origin to give another diminutive suffix (which replaces other suffixes), e.g. jinik "girl"  $\rightarrow jinaluk$  "little girl",  $pi\check{s}(\check{s})\bar{\iota}$  "cat"  $\rightarrow pi\check{s}luk$  "kitten" (FARRELL 1990:48).

<sup>462</sup> The Bal. word goes back to \*uaraka- (the same applies to Psht. warg, Morgenstierne 2003:89) while the NP one comes from \*uarnaka- (Morgenstierne 1927:88, Hoffmann 1982:85f.); \*uarnaka- would result in Bal. †gwanak (cf. II 2.2.3.3), and a borrowing from MP warrag would probably yield †gwar(r)ag. Geiger 1891:421 maintains that the correct form would be gwark which, however, does not seem to be attested and could moreover fall together with gurk "wolf" (for gwa-> gu-, cf. II 2.1.3.3.1, 3.1.3.4).

borrowed from Persian (some of them maybe in MP times), e.g. *gušnag* "hungry" (NP *gušna*, cf. p. 100). The infinitive in most Bal. dialects also shows this suffix which is attached to the present stem, e.g. *kan-ag* "to do", *war-ag* "to eat".

Bal. words with -ag often have variants with -a (GEIGER 1889:7), and in some dialects (at least in the Raxšānī dialect described by BARKER/MENGAL 1969/I:xxxi, SPOONER 1967:58<sup>463</sup>), -a and -ag are used as sandhi variants, with -ag being used if the next word begins with a vowel, and the variant -a in other contexts. The variation of -ag and -a is even applied to nouns of Ar. origin, e.g.

- BMC, SHG pāida(g) "advantage" from NP-Ar. fā'ida,
- BMC *xazāna*(*g*) "treasury" from NP-Ar. *xizāna*,
- FBB, SHG kīssag, BMC, EAL kīsa(g) "pocket" from NP-Ar. kīsa.

#### k-suffix after consonant

It is striking that -k is particularly frequent after sibilants and n:<sup>464</sup>

- $\bar{a}sk$  "gazelle" (NP  $\bar{a}h\bar{u}$ ),  $b\bar{a}sk$  "arm" (NP  $b\bar{a}z\bar{u}$ ),  $r\bar{o}p\bar{a}sk^{465}$  "fox" (NP  $r\bar{o}b\bar{a}h$ , Prth.  $r\bar{o}b\bar{a}s$ ),  $kur\bar{o}sk$  "cock" (NP  $xur\bar{o}s$ , Prth.  $xr\bar{o}sag$  "caller"), gwask "calf", makisk "fly";
- bušk<sup>466</sup> "mane" (NP buš), xargōšk "rabbit" (NP xargōš), mušk "mouse";
- $dr\check{a}\check{c}k$  "tree" (see below),  $ku\check{c}k$  "shell";<sup>467</sup>
- burwānk<sup>468</sup> "eyebrow" (NP abrū, MP brūg), šupānk "shepherd" (NP, Prth. šubān), rōtink besides rōtīnk<sup>469</sup> "intestines" (NP rūda, MP rōdīg).

<sup>463</sup> SPOONER 1967:58 notes that this is the case "in most dialects, except Sarāvānī". It remains to be studied, however, which dialects do show this phenomenon.

<sup>464</sup> Two examples of -k after C are only attested in Brahui: dask "thread" (Balochi has dasag according to EVM), rōtk "root" (Bal. rōtag, which cannot, as GEIGER 1890:144 presumed, belong to rud-"grow"; BARTHOLOMAE 1890:553 compares Av. uruϑa- "growth"). A number of the following words also have variants without -k.

<sup>465</sup> Most sources have the NP loanword  $r\bar{o}b\bar{a}h$ , cf. also p. 87.

<sup>466</sup> DTB, EAL. *bušk* may be a NP loanword (thus HÜBSCHMANN 1890:560). It is noteworthy that it seems to occur in the Eastern dialects only, WBal. (BMC) showing the hypercorrect form *bučk*.

<sup>467</sup> GEIGER 1891:422 has gwačk "calf" (gwač(č) in all other sources), for which cf. p. 280.

<sup>468</sup> BMC, EAL; otherwise  $burw\bar{a}n$ . For further variants, cf. p. 196, 236. MORGENSTIERNE 1948:255f. considers  $burw\bar{a}nk$  as Eastern Balochi, corresponding to a supposed SWBal.  $burb\bar{a}nk$  (without giving sources for the latter), which seems to be a rather unfounded assumption. The word seems to represent \*brū (cf. OInd.  $b^h r \hat{u}$ -, NP  $abr\bar{u}$ ) + the obl.pl. suffix  $-\bar{a}n$ , thus \*brūān > \*bruwān >  $burw\bar{a}n$  (for metatheses of liquids, cf. II 3.1.3.1).

<sup>469</sup> Both in EAL and MORGENSTIERNE 1932:49, the other sources have  $r\bar{o}t$ , cf. also p. 217.

The existence of a considerable number of words ending in -nk may be the reason for the intrusion of secondary n in nouns in -k (cf. p. 216f.), and for the suffix substitution seen in  $pall\bar{u}nk$  (EAL),  $pahlunk^{470}$  vs.  $pahl\bar{u}g$  "ribs". -nk is thus not, as claimed by Bray, a Brahui suffix: it is indeed found in Br. words of Ir. origin (ROSSI 1971).

#### Words with several k-suffixes

Since there is no difference in the meaning of most of the suffixes listed above, they are interchangeable to a certain degree,<sup>471</sup> and words with several variants occur, e.g.

- ādēnk, ādēnag, ādēn "mirror",
- tank, tang "narrow" (cf. p. 244), tanak "thin" (see below),
- čūčag, čūčūk, čūč "little finger" (cf. p. 293),
- sā'ig, sāyag, sāī "shadow",
- *šudīg*, *šudīk* "hungry",
- hāik, haig, āyag, āig "egg",
- pahlik (EAL) vs. common  $pahl\bar{u}(g)$  "ribs",
- EBal.  $jink^h$  besides more common janik(k), jinik(k) "girl" (cf. p. 235),
- EBal. zanāx vs. SWBal. zanūk "chin" (cf. p. 291) etc.,
- $n\bar{a}k\bar{u}(g)$  (SHG; GEIGER 1890:138) vs. normal  $n\bar{a}k\bar{o}$  "uncle".

There are also a number of words with a k-suffix the NP cognate of which shows a different one or none at all, e.g.

- $b\bar{a}sk$  "arm" (NP  $b\bar{a}z\bar{u}$ ),
- *šupānk* "shepherd" (NP *šubān*),
- $tun(n)\bar{\imath}k$ ,  $tun(n)\bar{\imath}g$  besides tun(n)ag "thirsty" (NP  $ti\check{s}na$ ),
- hāmag "raw" vs. NP xām.

Due to this variation, there are cases of secondary -k and -g, e.g.  $\check{cur}\bar{\imath}k$  "ring around the wrist",  $mundr\bar{\imath}k$  "ring" from Ur.  $\check{cur}\bar{\imath}$ ,  $mundr\bar{\imath}$ , respectively,  $h\bar{a}l\bar{\imath}g$  "empty" (NP-Ar.  $x\bar{a}l\bar{\imath}$ ). Conversely, there is a loss of -k in  $dr\bar{a}\check{c}$  "tree" (MAYER 1910, EAL: Coastal) vs.  $dr\bar{a}\check{c}k$  (EAL: Kēč $\bar{\imath}$ ), usual  $dra\check{c}k < *dra\check{\jmath}aka- via *darčk (cf. p. 189).$ 

<sup>470</sup> The replacement of *hl* by *ll* seen in *pallūnk* might have been motivated by the existence of *pallaw* (BMC, EAL) "side, corner". For the dialectal changes affecting *ah*, cf. II 3.2.2.3.

<sup>471</sup> Parallel phenomena occur in other Ir. languages, e.g. Khotanese (cf. SIMS-WILLIAMS 1983a:359).

<sup>472</sup> Similarly, a suffix -k is often attached to NP and (NP-)Ar. loanwords in Choresmian, e.g. k'lk "goods" (NP  $k\bar{a}l\check{a}$ ), f'ydk "advantage" (NP-Ar.  $f\bar{a}'ida$ , see also above), cf. MACKENZIE 1990:111.

#### Possible explanations

Given the multitude of suffixes, the question is whether they may be derived from Old Iranian by Bal. soundlaws (if so, which ones), whether some of them may have been borrowed (if so, which ones), and how the remaining ones may be explained. Several explanations are possible. What follows is what seems to me the most likely solution.

The sound laws otherwise assumed for Balochi would suggest that the suffixes containing -k are inherited since in other contexts, OIr. k corresponds to Bal. k. The suffixes with -g, on the other hand, are identical with those found in MP and may have been borrowed from there.<sup>473</sup> This assumption may be confirmed by the following:

- The suffix  $-\bar{u}g$  shows unetymological length of the vowel (e.g.  $j\bar{a}t\bar{u}g$  vs. Av.  $y\bar{a}tu$ -, OInd.  $y\bar{a}tu$ -). For MP, however, the length of the vowel is likely to be regular.
- On the other hand, the agentive suffix  $-\bar{o}k$  does not seem to be borrowed since there is no corresponding formation in Persian.

This would imply that words with  $-\bar{u}g$  which are unlikely to be loanwords show an adjustment of the suffix (e.g.  $j\bar{a}t\bar{u}g$  replacing \* $j\bar{a}tuk$ ).

Following this line of argumentation, one may add that

- -ik can be derived from OIr. \*-iia-ka- by Bal. sound laws (cf. p. 105);<sup>475</sup>
- $-\bar{\imath}g$  would be the regular MP result of both \*-iia-ka- and \*-i-ka- (the latter parallel to \*-u-ka- >  $-\bar{\imath}g$ , see above) and may have been borrowed into Balochi;
- similarly, the MP agentive suffix  $-\bar{a}g^{476}$  might have been borrowed into Balochi;
- on the other hand, -uk would be the genuine Bal. outcome of OIr. \*-u-ka-;

<sup>473</sup> One sure case of borrowing is māhīg "fish" (cf. p. 136).

<sup>474</sup> There is a lengthening of OIr. -i/uC# > MP/NP  $-\bar{\imath}/\bar{u}$ C, noteworthy examples being the past stem suffix  $-\bar{\imath}d < *$ -i-ta- and the suffix MP  $-\bar{u}g < *$ -u-ka- (observation by Nicholas Sims-Williams, personal communication). The context and conditions of this change remain to be studied. At least as a starting point, one might perhaps formulate this lengthening process as occurring in the context  $[i, u] > [\bar{\imath}, \bar{u}] / D\#$ . This would explain all cases of unexpected vowel length noted by SALEMANN 1901:272 and HORN 1901:26, 31f. with the exception of MP  $wiz\bar{\imath}r$  "judgment" (vs. Av.  $v\bar{\imath}cira$ -), which may have been influenced by MP huzihr, Prth. huzihr, NP  $xuj\bar{\imath}r$  "pretty" and NP  $az\bar{\imath}r$  "clever" (< OIr. ° $ci\vartheta ra$ -); NP  $b\bar{\imath}u$  "fundament" adduced by HORN 1901:32 might represent a result of PIr. \*budna- (cf. OInd.  $bud^hn\acute{a}$ -) differing dialectally from the usual form bun (for which cf. p. 299).

<sup>475</sup> Note the specific derivation of the suffix -ik in NP nazdik by KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:213<sup>77</sup>.

<sup>476 -</sup>āg does not go back to OIr. \*-āua-ka- (pace SALEMANN 1901:278), but to \*-āka- as is shown by the corresponding suffixes in Khotanese and Sogdian (Nicholas Sims-Williams, personal communication).

- $-\bar{u}k$  might then be the result of a contamination of  $-\bar{u}g$  and -uk;
- $-\bar{i}$  and  $-\bar{u}$  are most likely to have been borrowed from NP.<sup>477</sup>

Since the vowelless suffix -k is found predominantly after certain consonants, it seems to represent OIr. \*- $\check{V}$ -ka- in specific contexts, viz. (at least)  $\check{c}$ ,  $\check{s}$ , s, n + -V-ka- Bal. - $\check{c}k$ , - $\check{s}k$ , -sk, -nk: \* $b\bar{a}zu$ -ka- > \* $b\bar{a}zk$  "arm", \* $\bar{a}da\dot{a}(a)$ na-ka- >  $\bar{a}d\bar{e}nk$  "mirror", \*tanu/a-ka- > tank "narrow". This confirms the argument made above of  $b\bar{a}nuk$  "lady" being a loanword to which -uk was added since otherwise one would expect † $b\bar{a}nk$ .

The suffixes which remain to be explained are -ak, -ag and -ik(k), the latter being found in a few words only. Either -ag and/or -ak may be the result of the popular OIr. suffix  $-aka^{-479}$  in contexts other than those which produced Bal. -k, i.e. at least after stops where syncopation may have been prevented by the clumsy consonant clusters which would otherwise have emerged. Several explanations seem to be possible:

- if -ag was the Bal. result of OIr. -aka- (cf. the extremely common use of -ag), -ak might have been borrowed from the NP diminutive suffix -ak (thence the use of -ak in words like kitak "insect", gwarak "lamb").
- Alternatively, the genuine Bal. outcome of OIr. -aka- may be -ak, the suffix -ag being borrowed from MP. Since borrowed suffixes may be used on inherited words (cf. jātūg above), the existence of e.g. kōpag "shoulder", madag "locust" which cannot be interpreted as MP/NP loanwords is not a good counterargument.

For systematic reasons, the second solution would seem to be preferred: it corresponds to the interpretation of the suffixes  $-\bar{u}g$  and  $-\bar{t}g$  as borrowings from MP (see above) on the one hand and to the development of OIr. k otherwise observed in Balochi and to the assumption of OIr. \*-u-ka-, \*-i-ka- yielding Bal. -ik, -uk made above on the other. -ik(k) may have been borrowed from NP -ak with a palatalisation having first occurred in  $ba\check{c}ik(k)$  "boy" (cf. p. 193f.) and subsequently generalised to the other words (note that  $ba\check{c}(\check{c})$  from which  $ba\check{c}ik(k)$  is derived is a loanword, cf. p. 100); the gemination may be due to the borrowing process (cf. II 3.3.1.5), it is also possible that the suffix has been borrowed from Persian at a time when it still contained geminate k.

<sup>477</sup> The abstract suffix  $-\bar{t}$  has likewise probably been borrowed from NP (cf. p. 121).

<sup>478</sup> For further discussion of syncopation in Balochi, cf. II 3.1.2.1.

<sup>479</sup> This suffix could be attached to any OIr. noun without noticeable change of meaning, cf. KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:212)

In any case, it remains possible to derive -ik(k) from \*-ikka- < \*-i-ka-ka- or even from OIr. \*-a-ka-ka- $^{480}$  with a palatalisation of \*akk occurring in  $ba\check{c}ik(k)$  (see above).

The suffix -a which predominantly occurs as a variant of -ag is most likely to be borrowed from NP.

The diminutive suffix -uk is occasionally found in the form -uk(k), probably by analogy to -ik(k), thence  $da\check{\jmath}uk(k)$  /  $\check{\jmath}aduk(k)$  "hedgehog" (cf. p. 227). The motivation for the gemination in  $\check{a}zm\bar{a}nak(k)$ ,  $\check{a}sm\bar{a}nak(k)$  "story" (cf. p. 186) and in BMC  $h\bar{\imath}wakk$  "alone" (which might be due to some misinterpretation of probably genuine  $\bar{e}wak$ , cf. p. 103) is not clear.

The possible development of the OIr. suffixes containing -ka- into Balochi and Persian may thus be summarised as follows, the MP and NP suffixes which have been borrowed into Balochi marked with underlining:

OIr.	Balochi		MP	NP
*-au̯(a)-ka-	-ōk		-ōg	
*-ā-ka-			<u>-āg</u>	-ā
*-ii̯a-ka-	-īk			-
*-i-ka-	-ik	/č, š, n _: -k	<u>-īg</u>	<u>-ī</u>
*-u-ka-	-uk		<u>-ūg</u>	<u>-ū</u>
*-a-ka-	-ak		<u>-ag</u>	<u>-a</u>
*-a-ka-ka-	-ik(k)		-ak	
Bal. suffixes deriving from OIr. suffixes with -k-				

<sup>480</sup> Thus the explanation of the NP diminutive suffix -ak by KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:212, the double suffix being necessary because simple \*-ka- had lost its function; other cases of NP -k may be explained in a similar way, e.g. tanuk "thin" < \*tanu-ka-ka- (KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:212). Similarly, Bal. tanak may go back to \*tana-ka-ka- > \*tanakk while \*tana/u-ka- yields Bal. tank "narrow". In Zazaki, words with -e (< OIr. -aka-) are classed as feminines while the diminutive suffix is -ık (\*-ka-ka-).

#### 2.4.4.2 - b

The following words show an unexpected -b (GEIGER 1891:433):<sup>481</sup>

- srumb "hoof" might have got its -b in analogy to NP sum(b) "hoof" (cf. p. 130).
- HÜBSCHMANN 1895:63 assumes that the addition of -b in dumb "tail" (vs. Av. dūma- etc.) is specific to Persian and that those Ir. languages which show dumb have borrowed it from NP dunb.

On the other hand, the -b of namb "wet, dew" vs. NP nam need not be secondary if HÜBSCHMANN 1890:559 is right in supposing that it comes from < \*nabna-.

Conversely, the -b seen in MP aškamb (MACKENZIE 1986:13, also aškambag) "belly, womb" has been lost in šikam, EVM uškumag "belly, stomach". The Bal. word may have been borrowed from NP šikam (thus ELFENBEIN 1963:19), which is all the more probable as uškumag shows a labialisation of the vowel which seems to occur typically in loanwords (cf. p. 286, for the first vowel, cf. p. 204), so this loss need not be attributed to Balochi. The word is likely to be connected to OIr. √skamb (OInd. √skamb¹) "fasten, make firm", cf. MPM padiškamb "room" (for further cognates, cf. BAILEY 1979:413b).

<sup>481</sup> For rumb- "haste", cf. p. 95.

## 3. Common Balochi > contemporary varieties

This chapter treats the changes which for one reason or the other seem to be later than the stage of Common Balochi. These phenomena, which for the most part have not been accounted for systematically so far, are grouped according to whether they are to be attributed to specific dialects (II 3.2), seem to be restricted to loanwords (II 3.3) or neither of these (II 3.1). As Bal. dialectology and lexicology are in their infancy still, this arrangement is highly tentative and subject to change as new findings are made.

The following table presents the phenomena treated in this chapter. The order is parallel to that of the table in II 2.1. Note that the changes listed below are in the majority not sound laws, but occur only sporadically and/or in specific dialects. Some refer more to the phonetic than the phonemic level.

Common Balochi	output	details in chapter
С	geminated C voiced C	3.1.1.3, 3.1.3.1, 3.2.2.1, 3.2.3.1, 3.2.4.1, 3.3.1.5 3.3.1.6 3.2.2.2
-C	-CV Ø	3.2.1.2 3.2.2.3
geminated -C	simple -C	3.1.1.1
CC	CVC	3.1.2.4
K /V_	X	3.2.1.1.1, 3.2.3.1
KL	LK	3.3.1.1
Т	T <sup>h</sup>	3.2.1.1.1, 3.2.2.1, 3.2.3.1 3.3.1.6
-TL	-DL	3.3.1.2
-D	-T	3.3.1.4
miscellaneous metatheses		3.1.1.2, 3.2.1.1.3, 3.2.2.1, 3.3.1.1
miscellaneous assimilations		3.1.1.3, 3.2.1.1.3, 3.3.1.2
miscellaneous dissimilations		3.3.1.3

П	1	Т
p	$p^h$	3.2.1.1.1
	f	3.2.1.1.1, 3.2.2.1
	b	3.3.1.6.1
	w	3.3.1.6.2
pt	tt	3.2.1.1.2
pš	šp	3.1.1.2
ps	sp	3.1.1.2
t	$t^h$	3.2.1.1.1
	θ	3.2.1.1.1
	S	3.2.1.1.2
	δ	
	<u>t</u>	3.3.1.7
*kt	xt, tk, (h)t	see k
pt	tt	3.2.1.1.2
sp	ps	3.2.2.1
art	ārt	3.1.2.2.2
k	$k^h$	3.2.1.1.1
	x	3.2.1.1.1
	g	3.3.1.6.1
*kt	xt	3.2.1.1.1
	tk	3.2.2.1
	(h)t	3.2.3.1, 3.2.4.1
kš	šk	3.1.1.2
ks	sk	3.1.1.2
b	β	3.2.1.1.1
	w	3.3.1.6.2
d	δ	3.2.1.1.1, 3.2.3.1
	d	3.1.1.4
	z	3.2.1.1.2
rd	<i>r</i> , <i>r</i>	3.1.3.5
g	ġ	3.2.1.1.1
d	ŗ	3.2.3.1
č	$\check{c}^h$	3.2.1.1.1
	š	
Ĭ	ž	3.2.1.1.1

I	ı	
š	ž	3.1.1.3
	č	
pš	šp	3.1.1.2
kš	šk	
S	š	3.1.1.3
sp	ps	3.2.2.1
ps	sp	3.1.1.2
ks	sk	
h	Ø	3.2.2.1, 3.2.3.1, 3.2.3.3
VhC	VС	3.1.3.2, 3.2.3.3
m	w	3.2.1.1.2
n	Ø	3.1.1.3
	allophones	3.2.3.1
пС	CC	3.1.1.3
Vn	$ ilde{ m V}$	3.1.3.3, 3.2.1.3, 3.2.2.3, 3.2.3.3, 3.2.4.3
	V	3.1.1.3, 3.2.1.3
Vnt	$ ilde{ m V}$	3.2.3.3
r	ŗ	3.1.1.4
rK	Kr	3.3.1.1
rd	ŗ	3.1.3.5
rV	Vr	3.1.3.1
$\nabla r$	rV	
art	ārt	3.1.2.2.2
ard	ār, āṛ	3.1.3.5
y-	Ø	3.3.1.7.2
ya	i	3.3.2.1
	$ar{e}$	3.2.3.3
w	$w^h / \{\#,C\}_{\_}$	3.2.1.1.1
	g-, b-	3.3.1.7.1
C(u)wa-	Cu-	3.1.3.4, 3.2.1.3, 3.2.2.3, 3.2.3.3
aw	(u)w	3.1.3.4
awa	$\bar{o}$	3.2.1.3
V	Vn, Ũ	3.1.3.3, 3.2.1.3, 3.2.2.3, 3.2.3.3
	Ø	3.1.2.1, 3.2.1.2, 3.2.2.2, 3.2.3.2, 3.3.2.1
I		

# II. Historical Phonology

Ū	Ŭ	3.1.2.2.1, 3.2.3.2, 3.2.4.2, 3.3.2.2
Ŭ	V	3.1.2.2.2, 3.3.2.2
VV	VhV VwV VyV	3.2.2.1, 3.2.3.1, 3.2.4.1 3.2.3.1 3.2.3.1, 3.2.4.1
Vn Vnt	$\tilde{V}$ $V$ $\tilde{V}$	3.1.3.3, 3.2.1.3, 3.2.2.3, 3.2.3.3, 3.2.4.3 3.1.1.3, 3.2.1.3 3.2.3.3
ўсс ⊽с	VС VCС	3.1.3.1
a	$\bar{a}$ $i$ $u$ $e, o$ $\emptyset$ allophones	3.1.2.2.2 3.1.2.3.1, 3.1.2.3.4, 3.2.1.2, 3.3.2.3 3.1.2.3.4, 3.3.2.3 3.2.4.2 3.1.2.1, 3.2.3.2, 3.3.2.1 3.2.3.2
ăhC art ard aw awa C(u)wa ya	ăC, āhC ārt ār, āṛ (u)w ō Cu- i ē	3.2.3.3 3.1.2.2.2 3.1.3.5 3.1.3.4 3.2.1.3 3.1.3.4, 3.2.1.3, 3.2.2.3, 3.2.3.3 3.3.2.1 3.2.3.3
<u>ă</u> -	$y \bar{a}$ - $\bar{\iota}$ $a$ $u$ $\varnothing$ allophones	3.2.4.1  3.1.2.2.2  3.1.2.3.4, 3.2.1.2, 3.3.2.3  3.1.2.3.4, 3.3.2.3  3.3.2.1  3.2.3.2, 3.2.4.2
ihC	ēС	3.1.3.2, 3.2.3.3

<u> </u>		T
и	$\bar{u}$	3.1.2.2.2
	а	3.2.1.2, 3.3.2.3
	i	3.1.2.3.1
	allophones	3.2.3.2, 3.2.4.2
u-	wu-	3.2.3.2
иhС	ōC	3.1.3.2, 3.2.3.3
	ūС	3.1.3.2
C(u)wa	Си-	3.1.3.4, 3.2.1.3, 3.2.2.3, 3.2.3.3
ā	a	3.1.2.2.1, 3.2.3.2, 3.2.4.2
ī	i	3.1.2.2.1
	$\bar{u}$	3.1.2.3.1
	$ar{e}$	3.1.2.3.2
ū	и	3.1.2.2.1
	ī	3.1.2.3.1, 3.2.1.2, 3.2.2.2, 3.2.4
	ō	3.1.2.3.2
$ar{e}$	e	3.2.4.2
	$\bar{\iota}$	3.1.2.3.2
	ai	3.1.2.3.3
	īe	3.2.4.2
ō	ū	3.1.2.3.2
	аи	3.1.2.3.3
$ar{o}$ -	ūе	3.2.4.2
	wō-	3.2.3.2
ai	$\bar{e}$ , $\bar{\iota}$	3.3.2.2
	ei	3.2.4.2
аи	ō	3.3.2.2
D 1	1.6. 0	

Development of sounds from Common Balochi into the contemporary varieties

## 3.1 Changes not specific to certain dialects

The phenomena treated here are those which cannot be attributed to a specific dialect or group of dialects (yet), including those which occur in some varietie(s) of more than one of the main three dialect groups. Some might or will be due to contact with a neighbouring language and thus affect (mainly or only) those Bal. idioms geographically nearest to that language, irrespective of the affiliation of the Bal. dialect(s) in question. It is quite probable that with further research, it will be possible to attribute at least some of the following phenomena to specific dialects.

#### 3.1.1 Consonants

## **3.1.1.1** Shortening of geminates

CBal. geminated (long) consonants (cf. II 1.1.1) only occur after short vowels.<sup>1</sup> Those Bal. assimilation processes which result in geminates (cf. the table in II 2.1) are likely to have done so irrespective of the length of the preceding vowel first, the geminates being reduced to simple consonants after long vowels later:

• čam(m) "eye", tun(n) "thirst", WBal. pis(s) "father" vs. mās "mother", ās "fire".<sup>2</sup>

## 3.1.1.2 Metatheses

Metatheses are a frequent phenomenon in Balochi.<sup>3</sup> Some of them seem to be characteristic for specific dialects (cf. p. 234, 240f.). The more generally occurring ones are those involving a stop and s or  $\check{s}$ ; those with p seem to be of a sporadic nature, those with k apparently operate as sound-laws:

## **CBal.** $-p\check{s} > \check{s}p$ (GEIGER 1891:436):

• *trušp* "sour" (EAL, GEB, SHG) can be derived by metathesis from *trupš* (Prth. *trifš*, cf. p. 145).

For dialectal gemination after some long vowels, cf. p. 242, 258f.

<sup>2</sup> In the case of the other sound changes producing geminates, there are no examples with long vowels.

The same is true for several neighbouring languages, e.g. Dari (cf. p. 265), Pashto (GEIGER 1893:218) and Brahui (MORGENSTIERNE 1932a:8). For metatheses involving a liquid and a vowel, cf. II 3.1.3.1, for metatheses in loanwords, cf. II 3.3.1.1. If *ars* "tear" (cf. p. 160) is not a loanword from NP, it belongs here, too.

#### CBal. -ps > -sp:

• waps- (DTB, FBB, EAL: Lāšārī, Coastal, SHG) "go to sleep" is changed to wasp- (NP, Prth. xusp-) especially in the Western dialects (BMC, EAL: Raxšānī, Sarāwānī, EVM, NAWATA 1981:17, BUDDRUSS 1988:83), but not only in these (ABG, EAL: Kēčī).

In aps,  $h\bar{a}ps$ ,  $yaps^4$  "horse" for more usual asp, the reverse process occurs, maybe motivated by the idea of making a "correct" Bal. equivalent for NP asb.

## **CBal.** $-k\check{s} > -\check{s}k$ (GEIGER 1891:436):

- bašk- / baškāt "forgive, bestow" (NP baxš- / baxšīd, Prth. baxš- / baxt, cf. also p. 113);
- $bu\check{s}k$   $(/buxt^ha)$  "let go, go off (shoot)" is limited to DTB and EAL;
- *ša-wašk-* (/ *ša-waxt*, *ša-wašt*) "sell" (Av. *vaxš-*, cf. p. 117);
- waškī (DTB, EAL) for wakšī (ABG, EAL) "wild animal" represents NP-Ar. waḥšī with a noteworthy reflex of the non-standard CNP pronunciation waxšī (cf. p. 66);
- $\bar{a}$ šk (BMC, EVM) "that side, the other side",  $\bar{e}$ šk (BMC), išk5 (EVM) "this side" (obl.  $\bar{a}$ šk $\bar{a}$  "over there",  $\bar{e}$ šk $\bar{a}$  "here") involves the same metathesis if it is a compound from the dem.pron.  $\bar{a}$ ,  $\bar{e}$  (cf. V 1.2) and ka $\check{s}$  "armpit" (cf. p. 92) in its zero-grade form \*-k $\check{s}$ -, thus \* $\bar{a}$ / $\bar{e}$ -k $\check{s}$  >  $\bar{a}$ / $\bar{e}$ šk (BUDDRUSS 1974:28ff.).

The only counterexamples found so far are  $bak\check{s}$ - /  $bak\check{s}it$  "forgive" and  $wak\check{s}\bar{\imath}$  "wild", both besides variants with metathesis, so that  $bak\check{s}$ - /  $bak\check{s}it$  may well be a loanword. The metathesis - $k\check{s}$ - > - $\check{s}k$ - may thus be considered a regular change for Bal. words.

#### CBal. -ks > -sk:

• taskīr (GEIGER 1891:461) "error" besides taksīr (EAL) from NP-Ar. taqsīr;

<sup>4</sup> For  $h\bar{a}ps$ , cf. p. 158, for yaps, cf. p. 260.

<sup>5</sup> The vowel of išk may have been assimilated to that of idā "here" (BUDDRUSS 1974:39).

While it is correct that  $\bar{a}\bar{s}k$ ,  $\bar{e}\bar{s}k$ ,  $i\bar{s}k$  are only known from some WBal. sources, it is doubtful whether the use or non-use of these or similar expressions is a good criterion for establishing dialect boundaries as does Elfenbein 1966:8. It might also be due to chance that the formations are not attested from other dialects, and they are not found in the sources treating the dialect of Afghanistan (NAWATA 1981, BUDDRUSS 1988) which is very closely related to that of EVM (Turkmenistan Balochi) either.

• MORGENSTIERNE's etymology (1932:43) of  $dusk\bar{\iota}\check{c}^7$  "sister-in-law (husband's / wife's sister)" as from \*dux $\vartheta r\bar{\iota}$ -č $\bar{\iota}$  implies a metathesis (cf. p. 90).

The consonant cluster ks is only found in

- duksīč (only Spooner 1967:67 and EAL) and
- in loanwords, e.g. *maksad* "purpose" < NP-Ar. *maqṣad*, EBal. *aksarā* "generally" < Ur. *aksar* "all together".
- *diks* "CD" for Engl. *disc* (Lutz Rzehak, personal communication) shows sk > ks in a recent loanword.

One may thus assume that in inherited words, the change -ks - > -sk- operates as a rule.

## 3.1.1.3 Assimilations<sup>10</sup>

## **CBal.** $\check{s} > \check{z}$ (cf. Geiger 1891:426):

Most assimilations of  $\check{s}$  to a following voiced consonant involve a change of  $\check{s}m > \check{z}m$ . Since old  $\check{s}m$  is assimilated to m(m) (cf. II 2.2.2.2), words which exhibit  $\check{z}m < \check{s}m$  must either show secondary developments (cf. p. 93) or  $\check{s}$  from sources other than PIE \*s.

•  $u\check{z}n\bar{a}g$ ,  $(h)\bar{u}\check{z}n\bar{a}g^{11}$  "bathing",  $pa\check{z}m$ ,  $pa\check{s}m^{12}$  "wool",  $gu\check{z}nag$ ,  $gu\check{s}nag^{13}$  "hungry",  $m\bar{e}\check{z}murg$ ,  $m\bar{e}\check{s}murg$  "pelican" have been borrowed from NP;

The sources are FBB, SHG, BMC, EVM, EAL. EVM (i.e. ZARUBIN 1932:100) *duskíč* might be a typing error for *duskíč*.

<sup>8</sup> For semantic details, cf. p. 306.

The etymology of EBal. *aks*- "sleep" is not clear, but the word is not genuinely Eastern Balochi in view of its post-vocalic *k*. The past stem *akast*<sup>h</sup>- (sic) and the ipr. *biakis* seem to suggest, moreover, that *aks*- is a syncopated form of \*aka(?)s-, so that the cluster might be secondary.

<sup>10</sup> For other sorts of assimilations, cf. p. 235, 267.

<sup>11</sup> NP *ušnān* "washing herb" is compared to NP *šinā* etc. "swimming" by BAILEY 1979:466b. *š*- of *šinā* seems to be due to some sandhi condition (HORN 1893:176). Prth. has *snāž*- "swim".

Qualified as a loanword by EAL 120. For cognates, cf. BAILEY 1979:249, for the variant *pažam*, cf. p. 207. The genuine form could be  $p^h \bar{t} m$ , if it exists (it seems to be only attested in LEECH 1838, cf. GEIGER 1891:434) and if it is to be derived from something like \*pašm(i)a- (MORGENSTIERNE 1932:49). As OIr. *čašman*- gives Bal. *čam*(*m*) "eye" (cf. p. 126) etc., it seems rather unlikely that \*pašm(i)a- would result in  $p^h \bar{t} m$ .

<sup>13</sup> For further discussion, cf. p. 100, for genuine Bal. šudīg, cf. p. 92, 105.

<sup>14</sup> With regard to the fact that Kurdish has the same word, HÜBSCHMANN 1890:558 considers it as a loanword from NP. *mēš* "sheep" and *murg* "bird" (originally NWIr.) can also, but need not, be loanwords (GEIGER 1891:444), cf. Prth. *mēš* and *murγ*. For *murg*, cf. also p. 147.

- $\tilde{a}\tilde{z}m\bar{a}n$  "sky" may come from \* $\tilde{a}\tilde{s}m\bar{a}n$ , but the reason for  $\tilde{s}$  here is not clear; 15
- $r\bar{o}\check{z}n\bar{a}$  (ABG, SHG),  $r\bar{o}\check{s}n\bar{a}$  (SHG) "light (adj.)",  $r\bar{o}\check{z}n\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$  (BMC, SHG, EAL),  $r\bar{o}\check{s}n\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$  (ABG, BMC, FBB, SHG, EAL) "light (subst.)" is likely to have been borrowed from NP  $r\bar{o}\check{s}an$  "light (adj.)",  $r\bar{o}\check{s}an\bar{a}$ ,  $r\bar{o}\check{s}an\bar{a}$ , "light (subst.)" (cf. p. 114).

Other assimilations of  $\check{s}$  are seen in the following words:

- $p\bar{e}\check{z}$ - $d\bar{a}r$  "show" (only in PIERCE 1874) for  $p\bar{e}\check{s}$ - $d\bar{a}r$  (for  $d\bar{a}r$ -, cf. p. 320);  $p\bar{e}\check{s}dah$ ,  $p\bar{e}\check{z}dah$  "pistol". If  $p\bar{e}\check{s}$  comes from \*paitiā > OP  $pai\check{s}iy\bar{a}$  (KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:214<sup>82</sup>), <sup>16</sup> it is a Pers. loanword in Balochi, and the same would apply to Prth.  $p\bar{e}\check{s}$ .
- $a\check{z}$  (reported in GEB, DTB, EAL, SHG) is likely to have originated as a sandhi variant of  $a\check{s}$  "of" (EBal. equivalent for SWBal.  $a\check{c}$ ), it is indeed reported to be used in front of voiced consonants;  ${}^{17}\check{z}a$  (EAL) may either be a sandhi variant of EBal.  $\check{s}(a)$  (cf. p. 85) or modelled on  $\check{s}a$ .
- EBal.  $\bar{a}z$ - $g\bar{e}z$  (besides SWBal.  $\bar{a}s$ - $g\bar{e}j$ )<sup>18</sup> "lighter" is less likely to be a case of z for s ( $\bar{a}s$  "fire") as GEIGER 1891:426 assumes, but the first member probably is  $\bar{a}z$  "fire" (for which cf. p. 283), its EBal. variant would be \* $\bar{a}$ s (not attested as simplex) and may then have been assimilated to the second member of the compound.

One might be tempted to compare YAv. *ašn*- (obl. of *asman*-) here. However, it is hard to see how something like *ašn*- could have escaped the Bal. reduction *š*N > N(N) (cf. II 2.2.2.2). As *āsmān* also exists in Balochi (cf. p. 190), MošKALO 1991:33, 38 assumes EBal. sporadic change of *sm* > *žm* for which *ažmān* would be the only example. Similarly, GEIGER 1891:426 assumes a sporadic change of *s* > *ž*, the only other example being *āžgēž* which may be explained otherwise (see below). It might be possible that *āžmān* has been influenced by a word for "moon" found e.g. in Zaz. *aşme*, Talyshi *ovšym* "moon" (PIREJKO 1976); for further discussion of this word, cf. BENVENISTE 1936:230f. (Nicholas Sims-Williams, personal communication).

<sup>16</sup> GERSHEVITCH 1964:87 derives NP  $p\bar{e}\bar{s}$  from \*pasia-, still considering Bal.  $p\bar{e}\bar{s}$  a NP borrowing (GERSHEVITCH 1964:78).

<sup>17</sup> It seems that this information noted by GEIGER 1891:426 goes back exclusively to GLADSTONE 1874:5 (GEIGER 1890:112), though.

<sup>18</sup>  $\bar{a}$  $\dot{z}$ - $g\bar{e}$  $\dot{z}$  occurs in HITTU RAM 1881,  $\bar{a}$  $\dot{z}$ -gi $\dot{z}$  (with a quasi-zero grade second member) in GLADSTONE 1874,  $\bar{a}$ s- $g\bar{e}$  $\dot{j}$  in Cod. Or. 2439 of the British Museum (GEIGER 1890:114). For  $\bar{a}$ s, cf. p. 89, for  $g\bar{e}$  $\dot{j}$ -"swing", cf. p. 98, 229.

# **Distant assimilations involving s, \check{s} and \check{c}** (cf. Geiger 1891:436):<sup>19</sup>

- *čapčal* besides *šapčal* "bat" (cf. p. 161);
- *duškīš* (EAL: EBal.) "sister-in-law" instead of EBal. \*duskīš for SWBal. *duskīč* (cf. p. 90, 178);
- *šarōš* "elbow" (only in LEECH 1838) for usual *srōš* (cf. p. 131, 205);
- *šīšin* (several EBal. sources, cf. GEIGER 1890:146) "needle" for *sīšin* (DTB etc.) which is the equivalent of SWBal. *sūčin* (cf. p. 85, 198, 200);
- $\check{s}a\check{s}t$  "60" (MOCKLER 1877) for usual  $\check{s}ast$ ; <sup>20</sup>
- šašt-/šaštāϑ- (GLADSTONE 1874, HITTU RAM 1881, GCD, EAL) for šast-/šastāϑ-"send" (cf. p. 117);
- *šušt* (GEB, BMC, EVM, FBB, EAL; past stem of *šōd-* "wash") for *šust* (BMC, DTB, GEB).

#### **Assimilation / loss of nasal**

A nasal is occasionally assimilated to a following consonant, resulting in a geminated consonant, or entirely lost. This is likely to be motivated by the phenomena of unetymological nasals and secondary nasalisation of vowels discussed in II 3.1.3.3 leading to the existence of doublets with and without nasal.<sup>21</sup>

- DTB  $ap^h \bar{a}n$  (cf. p. 224) besides  $amp \bar{a}n^{22}$  "leather sack" (NP  $anb \bar{a}n$ );
- FARRELL 2003:176 *čikka* besides *činka* (also *činkā*, *činkas* etc.) "how many/much" (cf. also p. 195);
- DTB  $dat^h \bar{a}n^{23}$ , GCD  $da\vartheta \bar{a}n$ , FBB  $datt\bar{a}n$  vs. usual  $dant\bar{a}n$  "tooth" (NP, Prth.  $dand\bar{a}n$ );

<sup>19</sup> *mičāč* "eyelash" is not a case of assimilation and need not stand for \*mišāš (pace GEIGER 1891:436) as Ir. "to blink" shows several variants, including \*mič, \*miš etc. (Martin Schwartz apud SIMS-WILLIAMS 1985:57). NP *muža* may go back to a root in \*č (then a NWIr. borrowing) or have old \*ž (cf. Sogd. /muž-/, Nicholas Sims-Williams, personal communication, cf. also EMMERICK/SKJÆRVØ III:71, 126).

<sup>20</sup> It is not impossible that *šašt* is genuine and shows the same assimilation as in Av. *xšuuašti*- (GEIGER 1891:436), Prth. *šašt* and OInd. *sastí*-, but since the numerals are likely to have been borrowed from NP (cf. p. 81), the process here is probably independent from that in the other languages.

<sup>21</sup>  $t\bar{u}pak(k)$ ,  $t\bar{o}pak$  (GEB, EAL) "gun" is likely to have been borrowed from NP  $t\bar{u}pak$  and interpreted as containing  $t\bar{o}p$  "canon" (cf. p. 281) + -ak (cf. II 2.4.4.1).

Thus EVM. EAL has  $anp\bar{a}n$  (reflecting the orthographic rule discussed in II 2.1.3.1) and  $\tilde{a}p\bar{a}n$  and assumes that the word goes back to \*ham-pāna-.

<sup>23</sup> Thus also in other EBal. sources (GEIGER 1890:118), cf. p. 225. EAL also notes Eastern dãtān.

- FARRELL 2003:176, SHG lakkuk besides lankuk "finger";<sup>24</sup>
- FARRELL 2003:176, SHG *simit(t)* from Engl. *cement*;
- FARRELL 2003:176 *kampōdar* from Engl. *compounder* (pharmacist);
- NAWATA 1981:30, BUDDRUSS 1988:73 gō besides gōn "with".<sup>25</sup>

 $datt\bar{a}n$ ,  $\check{c}ikka$  and lakkuk show an assimilation of the nasal. EBal.  $ap^h\bar{a}n$  and  $dat^h\bar{a}n$  indicate that the loss of the nasal is more recent than the EBal. fricativisation (GCD  $da\vartheta\bar{a}n$  is the regularised EBal. form).

## Assimilations at the compound boundary

There are a couple of examples of assimilations occurring at the morpheme boundary between members of a compound:

- $br\bar{a}z\bar{a}tk$  "brother's child (nephew, niece)" from  $br\bar{a}s$ ,  $br\bar{a}t + z\bar{a}tk$  (cf. p. 185);
- pamman "for me",  $pamm\bar{a}$  "for us" from par + man,  $m\bar{a}$  (cf. p. 139);
- paigammar "prophet" (Lutz Rzehak, personal communication) besides paigambar (EAL), paigāmbar (BMC).

# 3.1.1.4 Other phenomena<sup>26</sup>

 $d>d^{27}$ 

The occasional substitution of d for d which GRIERSON 1921:394 reports from the

<sup>24</sup> GEIGER 1891:416 notes that this word is etymologically unclear. It might have been borrowed from some Ind. language. It also occurs in Persian and in Pers. Gypsy dialects (MORGENSTIERNE 1932:40). For *lunkuk*, cf. p. 204.

The interpretation of  $g\bar{o}$  as the denasalised variant of  $g\bar{o}n$  seems to be a convenient solution for this variation which BUDDRUSS 1988:73 termed unclear (BUDDRUSS 1988:73). FBB has  $g\bar{o}n\bar{a}$  (besides  $g\bar{o}n$ ), which is constructed analogically to the other postpositions with a noun in the oblique. FBB's other variant  $g\bar{o}m\bar{a}$  might show that the nasalised form  $g\tilde{o}$  (for which cf. p. 214) is interpreted variously as containing n or m. The etymology given by GEIGER 1890:124, HORN 1893:34 (cognate with NP  $b\bar{a}$  etc.) is not correct (HÜBSCHMANN 1890:557, 1895:21). The word may be connected to NP  $g\bar{u}n$ , MP  $g\bar{o}n$ , Prth.  $g\bar{o}nag$  "sort, kind", Av. gaona- "mode, way, colour" (with a semantic shift via "quality" > "equipped with" > "accompanied by"). For the etymology of NP  $b\bar{a}$  < MP  $ab\bar{a}g$  (OIr. \*up $\bar{a}ka$ -, OInd.  $up\bar{a}k\acute{e}$  "before, in the presence of"), cf. SIMS-WILLIAMS 1972:615 $^6$ .

<sup>26</sup> For alleged loss of word-final consonants, cf. II 2.2.4, 3.2.2.3.

<sup>27</sup> For t > t, cf. II 3.3.1.7.3. For a discussion of the phonemic status of r and d, cf. II 1.1.2.

Loralai area may have been motivated by contact to Sindhi<sup>28</sup> and seems to be more marked in EBal. dialects than in others, although there are examples from diverse Bal. dialects (MORGENSTIERNE 1948:256).<sup>29</sup> nd > nd seems to be particularly common:

- ABG has *dumb* (besides *dumb*, cf. p. 170) "tail" and *dīwāl* (vs. *dīwāl*, cf. p. 160) "wall";
- BMC, EVM, EAL have *kand* "ditch, hole" (probably to be connected to NP *kan-/kand* "dig", cf. *kand* "cutting");
- SHG, BMC, EAL show dōbar "breast" for DTB, GCD, EAL dōbar (cf. p. 294);
- hind (SHG, EAL) for hind (DTB) "bitch";<sup>30</sup>
- *gwand* (DTB, EAL) vs. *gwand* (remaining sources and Brahui) "small, short".<sup>31</sup> The reverse change can be seen in *jadgāl* (SHG) and its metathesised form *jagdal* (DTB) which stands for *jadgāl* (EAL) from \*jatgāl "Jatt" (ethnolinguistic group in Pakistan, cf. p. 187, 266, 268).

## r > r

There is a tendency to change r to the retroflex counterpart particularly when followed by a dental. According to GRIERSON 1921:394, the change of r > r /\_[+ dental] is regular in the areas around Loralai in Northern Balochistan, and SOKOLOVA 1953:55 reports the same rule for Turkmenistan Balochi (cf. also ROSSI 1979a:209). A parallel change is seen in Brahui, Pashto and Sindhi (MORGENSTIERNE 1932a:8, 1948:256).

<sup>28</sup> Sindhi often has d or d (the latter especially in the beginning of a word) for etymological d (TRUMPP 1872:XX, e.g.  $\underline{d}uk^h$  "sorrow" vs. Ur.  $duk^h$ ) for which d is used when borrowed into Balochi, cf. ABG  $\underline{d}uk^h$  "sorrow". ROSSI 1979:xxxiv notes that Brahui regularly substitutes d- for d- in Bal. loanwords, which might also account for some cases of d- in Balochi since Br. words may get borrowed into Balochi. Thus, the example  $d\bar{e}h$  (vs. DTB  $d\bar{e}h$ ) "country" given by GRIERSON 1921:394 might have been borrowed directly from Si.  $d\bar{e}h$  with a substitution of d for d (ELFENBEIN 1990/II:45).

<sup>29</sup> The Karachi Bal. examples in FARRELL 2003:177 may be explained as borrowings from Sindhi.

<sup>30</sup> Besides these, *mind* (SHG, EAL, also in Brahui according to EAL) and *mind* (DTB, EAL) are attested, also meaning "girl, daughter". Maybe this is a case of echo word (a word being doubled, the second of the pair changing its word-initial consonant to *m*, cf. SABIR 2003:220).

<sup>31</sup> For cognates (e.g. Khot. *vanda-* "small"), cf. MORGENSTIERNE 1929:256a, BAILEY 1979:374b. ELFENBEIN's 1985:231 assumption of a borrowing from Sindhi/Lahnda is not to be preferred since the allegedly corresponding words (TURNER 1966:514 s.v. *baṇḍá-*) fit neither in form nor in semantics; neither does it seem necessary (pace ELFENBEIN 1989:636) to consider *gwand* an EIr. "substrate" word. It seems possible that *gwand* has been influenced by a group of terms for body parts containing *nd* (cf. p. 219, 296f.).

The cases noted so far are:

- with *r* followed by *d*:

  urd (ABG) vs. (other sources) urd "army" (NP-Turk. loanword), dard (ABG) vs.

  dard "pain"<sup>32</sup>, zard (ABG) vs. zard "yellow" (NP loanword), šāgard (ABG) vs.

  šāgird "pupil" (NP loanword), khard-ē vs. khard-ē (both GRIERSON 1921:394)<sup>33</sup> "a

  few", mard (GRIERSON 1921:394, ABG, EAL) vs. mard "man, husband";
  - gar "precipice", if existing (only found in EAL), might be a cognate of Av.  $gara\delta a$ "cave". It seems preferable, though, to explain it as a variant of the better attested gar (probably a cognate of Av.  $ga^iri$  "mountain" (cf. p. 150);
- with r followed by t:  $s\bar{a}_rat^h$  "cold (adj.)",  $s\bar{a}_rt^h\bar{\iota}$  "cold (noun)" (both ABG) vs. (other sources)  $s\bar{a}_rt^{34}$  gut(t)ag "kidney" may well be a cognate of Av.  $v \partial r \partial \delta ka$ -, OInd.  $v_rkk\hat{a}$ -, both from PIIr. \*urtka- (EWAia II:571). \*PIIr. \*urtka- might have developed to Bal. \*urt(t)a-(> \*gwart(t)-?) > \*gurt(t)- (for PIr. \*ur- > Bal. gur-, cf. p. 100, 144) > \*gurt(t)ag. The loss of r (and the transfer of the retroflex quality to the adjacent consonant) might have been motivated by the existence of gut(t) "throat", Ur.  $gatt^h\bar{\iota}$  "ball" and by Si.  $gudd\bar{o}$  "kidney";
- with r followed by  $\vartheta$  (only GRIERSON 1921:394):<sup>37</sup>  $\bar{a}r\vartheta$  vs. (other sources)  $\bar{a}rt^h$  "brought",  $mur\vartheta$  vs.  $murt^h$  "died",  $w\bar{a}r\vartheta$  vs.  $w\bar{a}rt^h$  "eaten";
- with z: burz (GRIERSON 1921:394, BMC) vs. (other sources) burz "high".

For further developments of r and rd, cf. II 3.1.3.5.

<sup>32</sup> *dard* is most probably a NP loanword (GEIGER 1891:447) since it is likely to derive from \*darta-(SIMS-WILLIAMS 2000:200).

BMC, EAL *kard* "portion", classified by both as EBal. might have been inferred by the authors from Grierson and DTB (who have *k*<sup>h</sup>*ard*\(\bar{e}\) "some"). The word is also found in ABG (cf. p. 203). *kard* might have been borrowed from MP *kardag* "section". Note, however, that NP-Ar. *qadr* "measure" which is found in Bal. as *kad*(*a*)*r* (cf. p. 206) could also come out as *kard* via the metathesis of CL# > LC# which is common in loanwords (cf. II 3.3.1.1). This homonymy might even be the reason why *kard* "portion" is only known from a few sources.

<sup>34</sup> For the anaptyctic vowel, cf. p. 207, for the etymology, cf. p. 189.

<sup>35</sup> WEBER 1994:115<sup>29</sup> reconstructs \*urtaka- for MPZ gurdag (NP gurda). One might also derive it from \*urtka-ka-, however, i.e. from the same form as its cognates, apart from the additional suffix, similar to Sogd. γwrdtq- which is derived from \*urδkak(k)ā- by SIMS-WILLIAMS 1983:49.

<sup>36</sup> GILBERTSON's assumption (1925:368) of *gut(t)ag* being borrowed from Urdu does not seem likely.

<sup>37</sup> For  $\vartheta$  instead of expected  $t^h$ , cf. p. 227.

#### **3.1.2** Vowels

## 3.1.2.1 Loss of vowels<sup>38</sup>

There is a certain tendency to elide (presumably: unstressed) short vowels in non-initial<sup>39</sup> open syllables. It is probable that several elision processes have been at work in Balochi, perhaps one in MIr. times,<sup>40</sup> and at least one in Modern times, which may be seen in a couple of dialectal examples (cf. II 3.2.1.2, 3.2.2.2, 3.2.3.2) and in recent loanwords (cf. II 3.3.2.1).

Examples from pre-CBal. times are not numerous, probably mainly due to the shortage of corresponding polysyllabic input forms:

- the OIr. suffix -aka- comes out as Bal. -k at least in some contexts (cf. II 2.4.4.1);
- $ipt\bar{t}$ ,  $t^h\bar{t}$  "second, other" may reflect \*pt\bar{t} vs. Prth.  $bid(\bar{t}g)$  (cf. p. 122);
- zahg "child" (for dialectal variants, cf. p. 253) vs. MP, Prth. zahag;<sup>41</sup>
- nind- "sit" vs. Prth. ni- $\tilde{s}i\delta$ -, NP ni- $\tilde{s}in$  is likely to involve the loss of a vowel, although the precise derivation of the Bal. form is not clear (cf. p. 127);
- further cases might be  $\bar{a}zm\bar{a}nak$  "story" if it is to be interpreted as \*ā-zamān-aka-(cf. p. 186),  $br\bar{e}s$  "spin" if it derives from \*abi°,  $prin\check{c}$  "squeeze",  $pru\check{s}$  "break" (itr.) and  $pro\check{s}$  "break" (tr.) if they contain a preverb \*upa° (cf. p. 139).

The following two cases show that the first syncopation must have taken place before CBal. \*kt was changed to EBal. \*xt, SBal. \*tk and WBal. \*ht (cf. II 2.2.1.1):

<sup>38</sup> For loss of word-initial short vowels, cf. II 2.3.1.1.

<sup>39</sup> The seeming elision in  $j(\bar{o})wak$  (EAL) "small stream" (diminutive of  $j\bar{o}$  "river") might rather reflect the pronunciation / $j\bar{o}a$ -/. The variants  $nw\bar{a}sag$  (otherwise  $naw\bar{a}sag$ ) "grandchild" and  $jw\bar{a}n$  "good, young" (cf. NP  $jaw\bar{a}n$  "young") might involve a change of aw > uw (note that BUDDRUSS 1988:75 has  $juw\bar{a}n$  and EAL  $j(a)w\bar{a}n$ ), cf. p. 218.

<sup>40</sup> For syncopation in Middle Persian, cf. KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:210ff. MP syncopation mainly affects short vowels in open syllables when a resonant follows (KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:210ff.).

<sup>41</sup> If NP zahr, Prth. žahr "poison" go back to \*janðra- (cf. p. 206), Bal. zahg, MP zahag, Sogd. z'k might derive from \*zanha-ka- (maybe a derivation of \*zanah- corresponding to OInd. jánas-, Nicholas Sims-Williams, personal communication). It is not clear whether Bal. zahg can be an inherited word. For alternative etymologies, cf. KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:201. With regard to MP zahag, Elfenbein's interpretation (1989:636) of zahg as EIr. substrate word does not seem necessary.

- CBal. \* $\bar{a}kt > \bar{a}tk$ ,  $\bar{a}xt$ ,  $\bar{a}(h)t$ , past stem of  $\bar{a}y$  "come" < OIr. (Av.)  $\bar{a}$ -gata-;
- $z\bar{a}tk$  "offspring" (EBal.  $z\bar{a}xt$ ) occurs especially in compunds such as  $br\bar{a}^{-42}$ ,  $gwah\bar{a}r$ - $z\bar{a}tk$  "brother's, sister's child: nephew, niece",  $n\bar{a}k\bar{o}$ -,  $tr\bar{u}$ -zatk "uncle's, aunt's child: cousin"; it may be derived from \*zāta-ka- (cf. MP, Prth.  $z\bar{a}dag$ ), a derivation of  $z\bar{a}t$  "born" (past stem of  $z\bar{a}y$ -, cf. p. 109); the variant  $z\bar{a}k$  (MORGENSTIERNE 1948:284) might reflect \*zākk- < \*zātk, thus the development of OIr -xt in words not interpreted as past stems (cf. p. 112): alternatively, it might be a product of some contamination with zahg,  $z\bar{a}g$  (see above) "child" (cf. also p. 303);
- izbōtk (EAL, SHG) "lovage, ajowan"<sup>43</sup> is likely to derive from \*uz-bauda-ka-<sup>44</sup> (MORGENSTIERNE 1937:347, 1974a:278, cf. also ROSSI 1979:68), cf. Bal. bōd(išt) "smell" (NP bōy, Prth. bōδestān "garden"); if so, izbōtk would show an assimilation from \*uzbōdk- and a reinterpretation as a SBal. form, maybe involving a popular etymology with SBal. bōtk, past stem of bōj- "open", corresponding to EBal. bōż-/bōxt), so that an EBal. variant in -xt (izbōxt, DTB, MAYER 1910) could be formed.

## 3.1.2.2 Changes in quantity

## **3.1.2.2.1** Shortening

There are sporadic cases of short vowels where one would expect long ones:<sup>45</sup>

**CBal.**  $\bar{a} > a$  (GEIGER 1891:405):<sup>46</sup>

<sup>42</sup> *brā-zātk* is assimilated from \*brās-zātk, brāt-°, cf. p. 181.

The meaning "lovage (*ligusticum ajowan*)" is confirmed by all sources (including field-work by Turchetta 1989:29); it is only Mayer 1910 and EAL who note an additional meaning "aniseed". Lovage is a spice used in Indian cooking and for medical purposes (used on wounds according to SHG, against a sore throat or pains in the stomach according to Turchetta 1989:29); the word is also used as a women's name (SHG).

<sup>44</sup> The function of \*iz in EAL's \*iz-bauda-ka- is not clear while OIr.  $uz^{\circ}$  is attested (for Bal. u > i next to z etc., cf. p. 193f.). \*uz-bauda- is also seen in EIr. words (MORGENSTIERNE 2003:103).

<sup>45</sup> For shortenings specific for loanwords, cf. II 3.3.2.2, for those with simultaneous lengthening of the consonant, cf. II 3.1.3.1.

<sup>46</sup> EVM *adat* "custom" (NP-Ar. *cadat*) is not found on the page in ZARUBIN 1930 noted in EVM, *adat* and *adat* are not found in other sources. EVM *adab* "politeness" is probably a misprint for *adab* (pl. of NP-Ar. *adab*) motivated by the next entry *be-adabi* "impolite(ly)". *mal-* "stroke" (only LEWIS 1838) has been borrowed from NP *māl-* (vs. genuine Bal. *marz-*, cf. p. 97), provided it exists.

- *armān* "longing" (maybe borrowed from NP *ārmān*);
- asmānak (EVM, SHG), azmānak (SHG) "story" vs. āsmānakk (SHG), āzmānak(k) (BMC, EAL, SHG): the variation in vowel length might have been motivated by the existence of the parallel doublets ăsmān, ăzmān "sky" (for which cf. p. 190); the etymology might be (Pers.) \*ā-zamāna-ka-, cf. (borrowed) zamān(ag) "time" (for which cf. p. 235), the semantic development is parallel to Engl. tidings (Jost Gippert, personal communication); if so, the variant with -s- would be hypercorrect and based on the assumption that -z- has come about through assimilation (cf. p. 268);<sup>47</sup>
- an- in anga, angat<sup>48</sup> "still, yet", ančēn (FBB, EAL, BUDDRUSS 1988:69) "such (adj.)", anču, ančōš "in such a way, thus" might be composed with the pronoun ān (for which cf. p. 102), cf. the variants āngāt, ānčēn, ānčōš found in EVM and NP ān-gāh; alternatively, ančōš, anču might be dialectal variants (cf. p. 248) of \*hančōš etc. (this seems to be the assumption of EAL 4), i.e. compounds with ham° like (h)am-ē "same, this very" and (h)am-ā "that very" (with ē "this", ā "that", respectively); it is, however, not clear if the same might hold for anga(t);
- EVM (two attestations in ZARUBIN 1932 each) has  $\bar{o}man$  (other sources:  $\bar{o}m\bar{a}n$ , cf. p. 151) "desire" and bad-i "after" vs. FBB, EAL  $b\bar{a}d$  (cf. p. 63);
- iškar "(char)coal, ember" vs. iškār, NP sikār etc. (cf. p. 124);
- bar (BMC, DTB, EAL, SHG) "time" besides bar (cf. p. 253);
- pač vs. pāč "open" (on the etymology, cf. p. 139);
- EBal. (cf. GEIGER 1890:135) pakar vs. usual  $pak(k)\bar{a}r$  "necessary" (cf. p. 139);
- $r\bar{o}p^hask$  (DTB, GEB) besides  $r\bar{o}p^h\bar{a}sk$  (MORGENSTIERNE 1932:49) "fox";<sup>49</sup>
- zatk (FBB, SHG) for zātk "offspring" (cf. p. 185);
- EBal. shows the past stem suffix  $-a\vartheta$ -, it is a secondary variant of the past stem suffix  $-\bar{a}\vartheta$  (SWBal.  $-\bar{a}t$ , Prth.  $-\bar{a}d$ ), which is comparatively rare in Balochi, but well known from Parthian (cf. DURKIN-MEISTERERNST 2000) and Zazaki.

Additional cases of shortening of  $\bar{a}$  are confined to individual sources.

<sup>47</sup> Another idea might be to connect the word to  $\bar{a}zm\bar{a}y$ - "examine" (only found in MARSTON 1877, the causative  $\bar{a}zm\bar{a}\bar{e}n$ - being better attested; the word has been borrowed from NP  $\bar{a}zm\bar{a}y$ -, cf. HÜBSCHMANN 1890:555), although the way of derivation of  $\bar{a}zm\bar{a}nak$  would not be clear. For -k(k), cf. II 2.4.4.1.

<sup>48</sup> The short quantity of the second a is also of unclear origin, though parallel to NP gah vs.  $g\bar{a}h$ .

<sup>49</sup> A parellel shortening is seen in Sogd. *rwps* (for which cf. GERSHEVITCH 1954:16). The word commonly used in Balochi is the NP loanword  $r\bar{o}b\bar{a}h$ , cf. also p. 165.

DAMES' (1904:4<sup>3</sup>) examples need not involve shortening processes:

- the existence of *bakkal* "shopkeeper, Hindu" (only DTB) is questionable, other sources (BMC, EAL, SHG) have *bakkāl* (NP-Ar. *baqqāl* "tradesman") as expected;
- $b\bar{o}lak(k)$  (DTB, EAL, SHG) "tribe" for Turk.  $bul\bar{a}k$  (DAMES 1904:4<sup>3</sup>) might be caused by the interpretation of the second syllable as the Bal. suffix -ak;
- pattan for  $pat^h \bar{a}n$  "Pashtun" does not seem to be found in the sources;
- *tuman* (BMC, EAL, SHG) "tribe" for NP-Turk. *tōmān / tūmān / tumān* might be a loanword from Ur. *tuman*;
- jagdal (DTB), jagdal and jadgal (both EAL) besides jagdāl (EAL) which is likely to have developed via jadgāl (EAL, cf. SHG jadgāl) from jatgāl "Jatt" (ethnolinguistic group in Pakistan); the shortening of the second syllable may be due to interpretation as gal "group, multitude" (also used as a quasi-pl. suffix).<sup>50</sup>

Similarly, BMC has  $zardal\bar{u}$  "apricot" while the expected form  $zard\bar{a}l\bar{u}$  (loanword from NP  $zard-\bar{a}l\bar{u}$ ) is much better attested (EVM, FBB, SHG).

## **CBal.** $\bar{i} > i$ (GEIGER 1891:407):<sup>51</sup>

- EVM (two attestations in ZARUBIN 1932) *akikáttā* "certainly" vs. SHG *hakīkat* "truth" (NP-Ar. *haqīqat*);
- DTB dix besides  $d\bar{\imath}x$  "spindle" for SWBal.  $d\bar{\imath}k(k)$  (<  $d\bar{\imath}k(k)$ , cf. p. 197);
- kitak "insect, louse" could show a shortening of  $\bar{\imath}$  if it belongs with the somewhat unclear (EWAia I:355) OInd.  $k\bar{\imath}t\acute{a}$  "worm" (GEIGER 1891:407) and Sogd. kyc'kh (BAILEY 1979:101a);<sup>52</sup>
- mik "nail" vs.  $m\bar{\imath}k(k)$  "top of head", EAL  $m\bar{e}k$  "nail" (NP  $m\bar{e}x$  "nail, stick", cf. p. 200).

<sup>50</sup> Bal. *gal* might have been borrowed from NP *galla* "flock" (GEIGER 1890:121, 1891:44). For the metathesis, cf. p. 266.

FBB, GEIGER 1891:407  $bi\check{\jmath}$  "seed" need not (pace GEIGER 1891:407) be an example of vowel shortening vs. EAL  $b\bar{\imath}\check{\jmath}$  (NP  $b\bar{\imath}\check{\jmath}$ ) since it may have been borrowed from Si.  $\underline{b}i\check{\jmath}u$ . DTB has  $\underline{\tau}$  at the place it alphabetically belongs, but transcribes it  $b\bar{\imath}\check{\jmath}$  and remarks "Panj." which means that he considers the word to have been borrowed from Panjabi. The word cannot be genuine in the Eastern dialects (e.g. DTB) anyway since then it would then show the change of  $\check{\jmath} > \check{z}$ .  $b\bar{\imath}\check{\jmath}$  might have been borrowed from NP rather than from Lhd.  $bi\check{\jmath}an$  as MORGENSTIERNE 1932:41 assumes. For  $pi\check{s}(\check{s})\bar{\imath}/p\bar{\imath}\check{s}(\check{s})\bar{\imath}$  "cat", cf. p. 198.

The connection of *kitak* with Av. *kaēta*- (term for inimical creatures) assumed by GEIGER 1890:132 and ELFENBEIN 1990/II:87 is more than questionable (BARTHOLOMAE 1904:428b). Moreover, one would then expect Bal. †kēt(ak). OInd. *kéta*- "desire" also placed here by ELFENBEIN 1990/II:87 probably does not belong with the Av. word (EWAia I:399).

The variants of the past stem of *gind*- "see" may be explained as follows:  $d\bar{\imath}t$  (DTB, GEB, EAL: Eastern, Kēčī, Lāšārī, Coastal) is the regular past stem of OIr.  $\sqrt{d\bar{\imath}}$ , OInd.  $\sqrt{d^h\bar{\imath}}$  "look" (GEIGER 1890:122, cf. NP  $d\bar{\imath}d$ , Prth.  $d\bar{\imath}d$ ); dist (EVM, NAWATA 1981:17) and  $d\bar{\imath}st$  (BMC, FBB, EVM, EAL: Raxšānī, Sarāwānī) will represent contaminations of  $d\bar{\imath}t$  and \*uist- (the past participle of OIr., OInd.  $\sqrt{uid}$  "find", cf. MORGENSTIERNE 1932:44).<sup>53</sup>

## **CBal.** $\bar{u} > u$ (GEIGER 1891:409):<sup>54</sup>

- EVM  $\bar{a}muxta^{55}$  "accustomed" which because of its x must have been borrowed from NP appears to be a shortened form of NP  $\bar{a}m\bar{o}xta$ , CNP  $\bar{a}m\bar{u}xte$  (Prth.  $amm\bar{o}xtag$  "learned");
- PIERCE 1874, EAL (noted as Coastal, i.e. probably taken from Pierce) *surušk* "elbow" for *surūšk*, which is a variant of *srōš* (cf. p. 131, 205);
- kučik(k) "dog" vs. Kurd. kûçik "dog" shows a shortening of the vowel;<sup>56</sup>
- (h)urk (PIERCE 1875, MARSTON 1877, MAYER 1910, EVM, EAL) "empty" implies a raising of the vowel (cf. p. 200) of (h) $\bar{o}$ rk (cf. p. 82) > \*hūrk with subsequent shortening.

<sup>53</sup> If this explanation is correct, one might assume that Balochi once had \*uind- / \*uist- (both from  $\sqrt{\text{uid}}$ ) > \*gind- / \*gist-, and the past stem was at some point – probably under NP influence – replaced by  $d\bar{t}t$ , which might also have been borrowed from NP. For discussion of gind-, cf. p. 79, 98

<sup>54</sup> According to EAL 6, EVM *ārusī* "wedding" (NP-Ar. *arūsī*) is an error. For *ārōs*, cf. p. 154, 190. For  $pu\check{s}(\check{s})\bar{\imath}/p\bar{u}\check{s}(\check{s})\bar{\imath}$ , cf. p. 198.

<sup>55</sup> EVM amuxta is a misprint for āmuxta (cf. the citation from ZARUBIN 1949).

Variants are WBal.  $ku\check{c}ak(k)$  (cf. p. 195) and EBal.  $k\check{s}ik$  (for vowel elision, cf. II 3.2.1.2, 3.3.2.1). Bal.  $ku\check{c}ik(k)$  might have been borrowed, perhaps from Kurd.  $k\hat{u}cik$ , the latter perhaps a loanword from Azeri (DOERFER III:630); for a discussion of other Bal. animal terms possibly borrowed from Kurdish, cf. p. 158f. In Turk. languages, the words for "dog, puppy" (e.g. Turkmen  $g\ddot{u}j\ddot{u}k$ ) and "small" (Turkmen  $ki\check{c}i$ , for cognates, cf. RÄSÄNEN 1969:269f.) have merged.

ELFENBEIN'S 1963:45 conclusion from the existence of Parachi  $ku\check{c}uk$  "dog" etc. (MORGENSTIERNE 1929:263b) that NP  $k\bar{u}\check{c}ak$  cannot belong here does not seem to be conclusive. The Parachi word is likely to have been borrowed from Tajiki and the Taj. word from Turkic according to DOERFER III:630.

GEIGER 1891:409 assumes that  $ku\check{c}ik(k)$  has been borrowed from NP  $k\bar{o}\check{c}ak$  (thus the proper reading according to DOERFER III:628) "small", but the semantics make this assumption rather implausible. The Bal. word is less likely to belong with Osset. kwydz, Sogd. (') $kw\underline{t}$ - etc. (cf. ABAEV I:605) which have been derived from \*kuta- / \*kut $\bar{t}$ - and considered to be exclusively Eastern Iranian (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996:651); on the other hand, Zazaki has kutik, and although the precise history of this word is not known, it seems that it belongs to the EIr. forms.

# 3.1.2.2.2 Lengthening

There is a certain number of words with long vowels where one might expect short ones. A notable proportion of these are loanwords.

## **CBal.** $a > \bar{a}$ (GEIGER 1891:407):

There seems to be a regular lengthening  $art > \bar{a}rt$ , probably including  $ar\check{c}$  [artš]  $> \bar{a}r\check{c}$  [ārtš]. Note that some Ir. cognates of the following examples also go back to \*ārt. Two examples go back to PIE \*lH > PIIr. \*rH:58

- $\bar{a}rt$  "flour": Zaz. ardi (pl.), NP  $\bar{a}rd$  and Pashto  $\bar{o}r\bar{o}$ , all "flour", and Khot. sek. PP  $\bar{a}rda$  "ground"<sup>59</sup> all seem to derive from \* $\bar{a}$ rta- (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:134,) while Av.  $a\check{s}a$  "ground" (past part.) goes back to \* $\bar{a}$ rta- < PIE \* $h_2\hat{b}_1$ 1-to- (KLINGENSCHMITT 1982:93, HOFFMANN/FORSSMAN 1996:92);
- *sārt* "cold": MP *afsār- / afsārd*, Prth. *wisār-* "to cool" also show *-ā-* vs. NP *sard*, Av. *sarəta-* "cold", < PIE \*ḱlH-tó-<sup>60</sup> (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:150<sup>2</sup>).

Other examples derive from PIr. \*ar:

- $k\bar{a}r\check{c}$  "knife" corresponds to NP  $k\bar{a}rd^{61}$  in vocalism vs. Av.  $kar\partial ta$  < PIr. \*karta-(TREMBLAY 1999:90); - $\check{c}$  might be due to an additional suffix, e.g. a diminutive formation (GEIGER 1890:132) or \*-ja- (ELFENBEIN 1990/II:83);
- 3sg. wārt "eats" and bārt "carries" (cf. p. 147) vs. present stems war-, bar- in the remaining forms, the past stem wārt (vs. Prth. wxard) shows the same lengthening, which operates across the morpheme boundaries;
- the long *a* seen in *drāčk* (EAL: Kēčī), *drāč* (MAYER 1910, EAL: Coastal), *d(a)rāšk* (EAL: Eastern) "tree" might be explained by assuming a variant \*darčk which would result in \*dārčk. The metathesis effecting the other variants *dračk*, DTB *drašk*, ABG *daršak* (cf. NP *diraxt*) would thus be older than the lengthening.<sup>62</sup>

<sup>57</sup> This change does not operate in recent loanwords, cf. e.g. harč "costs" (NP-Ar. xarž, cf. p. 269).

<sup>58</sup> For PIr. \*rH > Bal. *ar*, cf. II 2.3.2.3.

<sup>59 \*</sup>arta- is seen in Khot. āda- "flour" (EMMERICK 1968:10).

<sup>60</sup> EWAia II:641: OInd. śiśira- "early spring" goes back to \*ki-klH-ro-.

There are some NInd. forms which likewise seem to require \*kārta- (TURNER 1966:156). In spite of OInd. *kṛtí-*, it is not necessary to assume a zero-grade formation for Iranian (EWAia I:390).

<sup>62</sup> If *dračk* is to be connected to Av. √drang (PP *draxta*-) "make strong/firm" as suggested by KEWA II:37 for NP *diraxt*, it could come from \*drajaka- > \*drajk- > *dračk* (note that MORGENSTIERNE 1932:43 postulated a preform OIr. \*drājaka-, but without giving the Av. cognate). This seems more

For lengthening in the context *ard*, cf. II 3.1.3.5.

Most other cases of lengthening of non-final *a* involve loanwords:

- ābrēšum "silk" vs. (borrowed from NP abrēšum, 63 BAILEY 1931:425), only EVM has abrēšūm (sic);
- (h)ārōs "wedding" for NP-Ar. arūs (cf. also p. 154);
- the lengthening seen in  $\bar{a} \not\equiv m \bar{a} n^{64}$  (GLADSTONE 1874, LEWIS 1885, EAL),  $\bar{a} z m \bar{a} n$ ,  $\bar{a} s m \bar{a} n$  (both in many sources) "sky" vs.  $a \not\equiv m \bar{a} n$  (DTB, GCD),  $a z m \bar{a} n$  (DTB, GCD),  $a s m \bar{a} n$  (GCD, NAWATA 1981:38) < OIr. (OP)  $a s m \bar{a} n a m$  may be explained by the influence of NP  $\bar{a} s m \bar{a} n$  "dto.";<sup>65</sup>
- $\bar{a}g\bar{a}$  (ABG) "if" for aga(r) (NP agar, Prth. ag); 66
- hāsp, hāps (GEB) "horse" for asp, aps (probably a loanword, cf. p. 90, 158f.).

Word-final -a corresponding to NP -a (CNP -e) often appears as - $\bar{a}$  (already noted by GEIGER 1891:406). The majority of the words with - $\bar{a}$  for -a are NP(-Ar.) loanwords. Only some examples are given here, all from ABG which has - $\bar{a}$  in all relevant cases (all examples written  $_{\circ}$ - unless otherwise indicated, but transcribed - $\bar{a}$ ).  $_{\circ}$ 

- *išārā* "sign" (NP-Ar. (also in Urdu) *išāra*);
- xazānā (BMC xazāna(g)) "treasury" (NP-Ar. xizāna, CNP xazāne);
- dīwānā (EAL dīwānag) "mad" (NP dīwāna, Ur. dīwānā);
- $zar\bar{a}$  (فرا) "atom, particle" (NP-Ar. zarra, Ur. zarra,  $zar(r)\bar{a}$ );
- zardā (also FBB) "rice with saffron" (NP (also in Urdu) zarda);<sup>69</sup>

convincing than GEIGER's (1890:120) linking of *dračk* with the late and rare OInd. *drākṣā*- of unclear origin (KEWA II:75). Cf. also p. 166, 208.

<sup>63</sup> STEINGASS 1892:8a only has  $abr\bar{\imath}sam$ ,  $abr\bar{\imath}sum$ , but the  $\bar{e}$  is confirmed by the Georg. loanword  $abre\bar{s}um$ - (Jost Gippert, personal communication).

<sup>64</sup> For the -*ž*-, cf. p. 179.

<sup>65</sup> This lengthening seems to take place already in Middle Iranian, cf. MPM, Prth. <'sm'n, ''sm'n>.

<sup>66</sup> Although the details are not entirely clear (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:17), NP *agar* is likely to derive from OIr. (OP) *hakaram* (HORN 1893:25), which implies that the Bal. word has been borrowed. For further variants, cf. p. 216.

<sup>67</sup> It is not entirely clear what pronunciation is intended by SHG in corresponding cases (e.g. *išāra*, sadakka) since the orthography is, e.g., الشَارَة .

<sup>68</sup> For the  $\bar{a}$ -, see above. It is possible that the existence of Ur.  $\bar{a}g\bar{a}$  "front, fore-part, future" plays a role in this case.

<sup>69</sup> For zard "yellow" and the other colours, cf. III 3.

- sikkā "coin" (NP-Ar. (also in Urdu) sikka);
- *šãbā*<sup>70</sup> "Saturday" (NP *šanba*, Prth. *šambat*);
- sazqā<sup>71</sup> (BMC sadka, SHG sadakka) "alms, charity" (NP-Ar. sadaqa);
- *fātiḥā* (FBB *fātēā*<sup>72</sup>, SHG *pātiyā*) "memorial prayer" (NP-Ar. (also in Urdu) *fātiha*);
- fāidā (DTB, EAL fāida, BMC, SHG pāida(g)) "advantage" (NP-Ar. (also in Urdu) fā'ida);
- faisalā (EAL fais(i)la, BMC paisla(g)) "decision" (NP-Ar. (also in Urdu) faisala);
- qiblā (EAL, SHG kibla) "direction of prayer" (NP-Ar. qibla);
- $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$  (راجه) "king" might have been borrowed from NP  $r\bar{a}ja$  (which in turn is from Hindi-Urdu), alternatively, it might also be mixed from Ur. راجه  $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ , راجه  $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ , راجه  $r\bar{a}ja$  and reinterpreted as belonging with the NP-Ar. items above.

According to GEIGER 1891:406, the same variation is observed in perfect stems:<sup>73</sup>

- $b\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$ ,  $b\bar{\imath}s\bar{a}$  vs.  $b\bar{\imath}ta$  (from bay- "become");<sup>74</sup>
- *dīsā* vs. *dīta* (from *gind* "see", cf. p. 79, 98);
- jasā vs. jata (from jan- "strike", cf. p. 86).

The number "10" (FBB  $d\bar{a}$ ) and its compounds from 11 to 19 ( $-d\bar{a}$  according to FARRELL 1990:87 and ABG<sup>75</sup>, -da according to BMC<sup>76</sup>, FARRELL 1990:26, 30<sup>77</sup>) are treated like words in -a in most dialects. This means that -h was lost here before the lengthening of -a took place.

In the case of word-final  $^{c}$  ( $_{z}$ ), a transcription like (both ABG)  $\dot{z}il\bar{a}^{c}$  "district" (NP-Ar.

<sup>70</sup> For nasalisation of short vowels, see below. BMC, FBB, SHG have (in the case of SHG, additionally) *šambē*. This is the regular oblique case of (NP) *šamba* in Urdu, but not the case used in expressions like "on Saturday", for which purpose postpositions are used.

<sup>71</sup> z is the EBal. equivalent for d here, cf. p. 230f. For vowel elision in loanwords, cf. II 3.3.2.1.

<sup>72</sup> For  $ih > \bar{e}$ , cf. II 3.1.3.2.

<sup>73</sup> GEIGER 1891:406 states that GLADSTONE 1874 and HITTU RAM 1881 have the forms in  $-\bar{a}$  whereas DAMES 1881 has -a throughout.

<sup>74</sup> These are variants of  $b\bar{u}ta$  (for  $\bar{u} > \bar{\iota}$ , cf. p. 196f., for t > s, cf. p. 230f.). For further details, cf. p. 77.

<sup>75</sup> ABG has dah "10", but  $-d\bar{a}$  for the following numbers.

<sup>76</sup> BMC even has -da(g) for 11-19. For -a(g) in BMC, cf. p. 165.

<sup>77</sup> The apparent inconsistency in FARRELL 1990 is due to the fact that the precise length of -a/-ā is very difficult to determine (Tim Farrell, personal communication). BARKER/MENGAL note (1969/I:xlii) that all word-final vowels "tend to be somewhat shorter in duration than those within the word".

 $zil^c$  "rib, side") and  $tam\bar{a}^{c78}$  "greed" (NP-Ar.  $tama^c$ ) is probably a spelling pronunciation since it may be assumed that  $^c$  is not pronounced. The  $-\bar{a}$  might be due to the lengthening phenomenon described above. Alternatively, a compensatory lengthening similar to the one occurring in the word-internal context  $\check{V}^cC > \bar{V}C$  (cf. p. 63) might operate here.<sup>79</sup>

As to the origin of this variation, one may first note that  $\underline{z}imm\bar{a}$  "responsibility" vs.  $\underline{z}imma$ -w $\bar{a}r$  "responsible" (both ABG) shows that the phenomenon is something secondary and presumably fairly recent. Furthermore,  $d\bar{i}w\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ ,  $\underline{z}ar(r)\bar{a}$  might have been borrowed from Urdu, and since the same variation also occurs in a number of NP loanwords in Urdu (but not in all or even the majority of them according to PLATTS 1884), it may be assumed that it is due to language contact. In Urdu, the lengthening of -a might arise from masculine nouns in -a (including NP loans in -a) being inflected in the same way (obl. - $\bar{e}$  etc.) as those in - $\bar{a}$ .

### **CBal.** $i > \bar{i}$ (GEIGER 1891:408):

The majority of the examples are loanwords again:

- baxšīš (ABG) "gift; forgiveness" seems to be a mixture of NP baxšiš with Si. bakšīs and/or Ur. baxšiš, baksīs (all from NP);
- fikar (ABG) "thought" for (NP-Ar.) fikr (ABG, EAL), pikr (BMC, EAL, SHG); 80
- kapīnjar (PIERCE 1874, MARSTON 1877, EAL) "partridge" besides kapinjar (cf. p. 276);
- *kunčīt* besides *kunčit*<sup>81</sup> (EVM, EAL), *kunčat*<sup>82</sup> (SHG) "sesame" might have been influenced by NP *kunjīd* besides *kunjid*.<sup>83</sup>

<sup>78</sup> ABG <tem°a> is likely to be a misprint for intended <tema°>, i.e. tamā° in the transcription used here. EAL has tama "desire".

ABG  $fiq\bar{a}h$  "islamic law" (NP-Ar. fiqh) might be an idiosyncratic combination of the idea that word-final  $\langle h \rangle$  is pronounced as  $\bar{a}$  and the knowledge that in this case,  $\langle h \rangle$  indicates a consonant.

<sup>80</sup> For further variants, cf. p. 267.

<sup>81</sup> This form is exactly what HÜBSCHMANN 1890:561 reconstructs as the basis for Arm. (borrowed) *knčiť*. The Bal. word is a nice confirmation for the existence of *kunčit* in Middle NW Iranian.

<sup>82</sup> The vowel of the second syllable (if not an error) must be a hypercorrect reversal of a perceived palatalisation process (for a > i, particularly frequent in SHG, cf. p. 193f.).

<sup>83</sup> ELFENBEIN 1990/II:81 assumes that the word was borrowed from Ind., but this is not probable since OInd. *kuñcita*- and its decendants mean "crooked" ("sesame" is *tilá*-, *tíla*- in OInd. and similarly in Modern Ind. languages), so it is more probable that the words are cognates. For Ir. cognates, cf. BAILEY 1979:61f.

## **CBal.** $u > \bar{u}$ (GEIGER 1891:409):<sup>84</sup>

- EVM abrēšūm "silk" vs. ābrēšum, see above;
- DTB apūrs "juniper" vs. normal apurs (cf. p. 140, 145);
- *kūmak* (DTB) "help" for *kumak*(*k*) (NP-Ar. *kumak*, cf. p. 272, 285);
- $\bar{a}k\bar{u}bat$  (BMC) "future" for  $\bar{a}kubat$ ,  $\bar{a}kibat$  (NP-Ar.  $^c\bar{a}qibat$ , cf. p. 286).

Note that last example has a variant with  $-\bar{o}$ -, for which cf. p. 201.

## 3.1.2.3 Changes in quality

### 3.1.2.3.1 Palatalisation

Palatalisation of a (and, to a lesser degree, u) is common, although the unchanged variants without palatalisation are in most cases attested as well.

# **CBal.** a > i (GEIGER 1891:407):<sup>85</sup>

In words which are likely to be inherited, palatalisation seems to be limited to the context next to  $\check{c}$ ,  $\check{j}$ ,  $\check{s}$ ,  $\check{z}$ , s and z. It seems to occur more frequently in SBal. than in the other dialects. Examples (sorted according to the palatalising consonant) are:<sup>86</sup>

<sup>84</sup> For (h)ūrt "tiny" vs. NP xurd, cf. p. 122, 197. gandīm "wheat" (used in the Eastern and Southern dialects mainly, the Western ones using gal(l)a instead (BMC), for the corresponding location of the change  $\bar{u} > \bar{\iota}$ , cf. p. 196ff.) < gandūm (EAL) might be regular (HÜBSCHMANN 1890:556 who assumes PIIr. \*gandhūma-) in spite of NP gandum since the Ir. forms seem to go back to different protoforms (EWAia I:498f., against MORGENSTIERNE 1932:45 who assumes that only †gantum would be regular).

<sup>85</sup> The *i* of ABG *nimāš* "prayer" vs. *namāš* (cf. p. 96) may be explained as being due to the NP loanword *nimāz* "prayer" (for which cf. p. 285). For *āsin* "iron", cf. p. 87; NP *āhan* is used in the form *āhin* in some Bal. dialects, its -*i*- being probably due to an analogy to *āsin*. The *i* of *dušmin*, *dužmin* (SHG) "enemy" may either be due to the \*i in \*duš-maniu- (cf. Prth. *dušmen* <dwšmyn>, Kurd. *dijmin*) or to its being borrowed from Persian (MP likewise *dušmen*) while *dušman* (BMC, EAL), *dužman* (ABG, DTB, EAL) may have been borrowed from or influenced by NP *dušman* (cf. also p. 93).

<sup>86</sup> Bal. *mič*- "suck" vs. NP *maz*- probably does not belong here, cf. p. 95. GEIGER's 1891:407 example *pūnzig* "heel" occurs only once (all other sources have *pūnz*, for the etymology, cf. p. 127, for variants see below) and even if it existed, it need not involve a palatalisation process but might contain a suffix \*-ika-. The source of EAL's *pūnzīg* is not clear to me.

The existence of the variant  $\check{c}ih\bar{a}r$  "4" (otherwise  $\check{c}\bar{a}r$ , cf. p. 120) found in EAL is, although rather probable, not sure. Maybe an underlying assumption for the establishing of  $\check{c}ih\bar{a}r$  is that EBal.  $\check{c}y\bar{a}r$ 

- pāčin vs. NP pāzan "goat" (cf. p. 126); sōčin, sūč(č)in vs. NP sōzan "needle" (cf. p. 85, 198, 200); gēčin "sieve" < \*uaič-ana- (Elfenbein 1985:231), a derivative of gēč- "sift" (cf. p. 98) and cognate of Kurd. bêjing "sieve";</li>
- ABG *jibar* vs. NP-Ar. *jabr* "force" (cf. p. 206); SHG *jintir* vs. EAL *jantir* vs. BMC, DTB, EAL *jantar* (cf. NP *jandar*) "millstone" (cf. p. 104); *jinik*(k)<sup>87</sup> vs. *janik*(k)<sup>88</sup> "girl, daughter", *jan* (NP *zan*) "woman"; EAL *dōjik* vs. EAL *dōjak* "hell" (usually *dōzah* etc., see below);
- GEB, EAL hariš vs. DTB harš(a) (NP araš) "ell";
- EBal.  ${}^{+}di\check{z}$  "brand" which GEIGER 1891:400 presumes to be the correct form of DTB  $di\delta$  (cf. the past stem daxt) < \*daž- can belong here if it exists, <sup>89</sup> cf. OInd.  $\sqrt{dah}$  "burn", Av.  $da\check{z}$ -, Prth.  $da\check{z}n$  "hot, spicy";
- ABG *sibr* (otherwise *sabr*) "patience" (NP-Ar. *sabr*, cf. also p. 206); DTB, BMC, FBB, EAL *sing* vs. DTB *sang*<sup>90</sup> "stone" (NP *sang*, Prth. *asang*); EBal. *kisān* (otherwise *kasān*) "small"; SHG, FBB, EAL, NAWATA 1981:35 *makisk* and borrowed *magis(k)* (EAL, SHG) vs. GEB *makask*, NP, Prth. *magas* "fly" (cf. p. 78);
- BMC dōzix vs. DTB dōzax, SHG dōzah, EAL dōzak, ABG dūžah (NP dōzax) "hell" (cf. p. 93);
- one possible explanation for the diminutive suffix -ik(k) is its derivation from \*-ak(k) in palatal context (cf. II 2.4.4.1), cf.  $ba\check{c}ik(k)$  "son"  $< ba\check{c}ak(k)$ .

r seems to have the same palatalising effect:<sup>92</sup>

- BMC, EVM, EAL bir "on, upon, back" (borrowed from NP bar);93
- DTB birā\theta\theta\text{"brother" vs. barās, SWBal. brāt (cf. p. 205);

<sup>(</sup>cf. p. 234) might be based on such a form.

<sup>87</sup> BMC jinikk, ABG, FBB, NAWATA 1981:35 jinik; DTB also has jink.

<sup>88</sup> SHG janikk, DTB janikh.

<sup>89</sup> EAL has daž-, but this might be due to Elfenbein's reading of Geiger and/or DTB. Geiger's connection of the word with NP daža "seal" is rejected by Müller (apud HÜBSCHMANN 1895:63). There is no corresponding SWBal. verb attested; one would expect \*daj- (< PIE \*dheguh). Av. daž-for expected \*daj- is explained as a dialectal phenomenon by HOFFMANN/FORSSMAN 1986:101.

<sup>90</sup> For the variants  $s\tilde{i}g$  (SHG) and  $s\tilde{a}g$  (ABG, SHG), cf. p. 244, for the etymology, cf. p. 139.

<sup>91</sup> The data do suggest (pace GERSHEVITCH 1964:88) that *kisān* (DTB, MAYER 1910) is a secondary variant of *kasān* (all SWBal. sources, including the palatalisation-friendly SHG).

<sup>92</sup> GEIGER 1891:407f. also places mir- "die" and gir- "take" here (for which cf. p. 149). dir(r)- "tear", if it belongs here, would be the only example with ar(r) > ir(r) (for a different solution, cf. p. 145). GEIGER's example (1891:408) wasirk "father-in-law" belongs in the following section.

<sup>93</sup> The genuine Bal. cognate might be par (cf. p. 139).

- *pir* "on, upon" which (if not a variant of *par* "for", for which cf. p. 139) might derive from OIr. *para*° "further, distant, highest";<sup>94</sup>
- dārindag (AXENOV 2003:252) "wealthy" vs. its source NP dāranda;
- SHG digir<sup>95</sup> "other" vs. digar (borrowed from NP digar, cf. p. 121);
- EAL *girdēn*<sup>96</sup> "neck", *girdō* "circle around the neck on a dress" vs. *gardin* (cf. p. 285), *gardan* "neck" (borrowed from NP).

## Examples with -tir form a specific subgroup:

- SHG kunčat "sesame" vs. kunčit otherwise (cf. p. 192);
- BMC, FBB, SHG *uštir*, EAL *huštir* vs. ABG *uštar*, GEB *huštar*, EVM *uštur*, DTB, EAL *huštur* "camel" (cf. p. 158f.);
- *jintir*, *jantir* vs. *jantar* "millstone", see above;
- comparative suffix -tir (all sources) vs. DTB, FBB (besides -tir) -tar and NP -tar.

# Hypercorrect reversals of the palatalisation process may be seen in

- WBal.  $ku\check{c}ak(k)$  vs. SBal.  $ku\check{c}ik(k)$  "dog" (for the etymology, cf. p. 188) might show influence of the NP diminutive suffix -ak and/or NP  $k\bar{u}\check{c}ak$  "small"; 97
- the suffix of  $\bar{a}zm\bar{a}nak(k)$ ,  $\bar{a}sm\bar{a}nak(k)$  "story" (cf. p. 186) might be due to a contamination of -ag and diminutive Bal. -ik(k) and/or NP -ak (cf. II 2.4.4.1).

## **CBal.** u > i (GEIGER 1891:405):<sup>98</sup>

u is palatalised in similar contexts as a, although not to the same extent, cf. (by order of palatalising consonant):

• *čin-ka(s), čin-kā, činčō* "how much/many" is a compound of *čunt* "how much" (NP *čand*, Av. *čuuant-*, Prth. *čwand*, cf. p. 219) and *kas* "person" (cf. p. 125) and *čō* "so (much)" (cf. p. 200), respectively;

<sup>94</sup> GEIGER 1890:141 considers *pir* as a cognate of OIr. *pari*° (Av. *pa<sup>i</sup>ri*°) "around" which he concludes from *pir dēag*, *pir kanag* "to put on (clothes)" in which, however, "upon" for *pir* would also fit. The additional verbal compounds in EAL 117 as well as the glosses to *pir* in SHG show that "upon" is the basic meaning. It is not clear to me where *pirr* (EAL 117) is attested.

<sup>95</sup> SHG دگه digih is likely to be due to a contamination of digir and diga (cf. p. 283).

<sup>96</sup> The  $\bar{e}$  in the suffix is not clear to me.

<sup>97</sup> FBB, SHG have *kučik*, EAL (Coastal) *kučikk*, BMC, EAL *kučakk*, EVM and NAWATA 1981:35 *kučak*. DTB (Eastern) has *kšik*.

<sup>98</sup> For dialectal a in some of these cases, cf. p. 236f.

- jitā "separate" vs. NP judā (cf. p. 104);
- FBB *iškan- / iškut*, SHG *iškun- / iškut* vs. SHG *uškun- / uškut*, BMC, EVM (*k-)uškin- / (k)uškit* "hear"<sup>99</sup>; Southern *šipānk* vs. Western *šupānk*, NP *šubān* "shepherd";<sup>100</sup> *nišār*<sup>101</sup> vs. NP *sunār* "daughter-in-law";
- wasirk vs. NP xusur "father-in-law": wasirk<sup>102</sup> comes from \*huasura-ka-, the suffixless form (cf. Av.  $x^{\nu}asura$ -, OInd.  $\dot{s}\dot{v}\dot{a}\dot{s}ura$ -) can be seen in  $\dot{w}asir-z\bar{a}(t)k^{103}$  "brother-in-law" ("father-in-law's son");
- $izb\bar{o}tk$  "lovage" is likely to derive from \*uzbotk (cf. p. 185), palatalisation of OIr.  $uz^{\circ}$  is also found in Parthian, cf. iz- $b\bar{o}g$  "release", iz- $\gamma\bar{a}m$  "exit";
- *birwān* (FBB) vs. *burwān*(*k*) "eyebrow" (cf. p. 208, 236).

# **CBal.** $\bar{u} > \bar{\iota}$ (GEIGER 1891:410):<sup>104</sup>

The change of  $\bar{u} > \bar{\iota}$  does occur in certain dialects, but the isoglosses do not coincide with the major dialect divisions (pace Moškalo 1991:24).  $\bar{u}$  is preserved in Raxšānī (Western), Kēčī (Southern) and Lāšārī, it is modified to  $\bar{u}$  (written  $\bar{u}$ ) in Sarāwānī according to Elfenbein 1990/II:XII<sup>105</sup> and changed to  $\bar{\iota}$  in all positions – and in inherited words and loanwords alike – in Coastal (Southern) and the Eastern dialects (Elfenbein 1990/II:VIIff.).<sup>106</sup>

<sup>99</sup> *iškun- / iškut* are Kēčī and Sarāwānī according to EAL X, XIII who also cites the variant *iškēn-*. *uškun- / uškut* (for which cf. p. 204) and (*k*)*uškin- /* (*k*)*uškit* are Raxšānī according to EAL VIII. NAWATA's 1981:16 *ušk-* is obviously modelled on the past stem *uškit*. For EBal. *aškan-* etc., cf. p. 236. If GERSHEVITCH (1998:111) is right in considering *uškin- / uškit* the original variant (cf. p. 147), *iškun- / iškut* might also be explained as showing a metathesis of vowel quality (GERSHEVITCH 1998:110).

<sup>100</sup> SHG has *šipānk*, BMC *šupānk*, EAL qualifies both as Coastal **and** Kēčī. For further variants, cf. p. 236, for the suffix, cf. p. 165f., for the etymology, cf. p. 112.

<sup>101</sup> For the etymology, cf. p. 128, for the semantics, cf. p. 306.

<sup>102</sup> For semantic details, cf. p. 306, for further discussion, cf. p. 208. 228.

<sup>103</sup> EAL. RZEHAK 1991:186 has *wasir-zāg* "husband's brother". The Eastern dialect form (EAL, PEHRSON 1966:45) is *wasir-zāxt*, *wasar-zāxt* (for which cf. p. 208, 236).

<sup>104</sup> For mūd, mīd "hair", cf. p. 142.

<sup>105</sup> The dialect called Sarāwānī by Elfenbein is obviously not the same as the dialect described by SPOONER 1967, BARANZEHI 2003 and others under the same name (meaning the dialect of the Iranian town of Sarāwān and its surroundings). The latter does not show a change of  $\bar{u} > \bar{u}$  (cf. p. 262).

<sup>106</sup> The fact that the Eastern dialects in general and the remaining ones in part show this change was already described by GEIGER 1889:88.

## Some examples: 107

- (h)apītag SHG vs. apūtag SHG, MORGENSTIERNE 1948:290 (a certain plant, cf. p. 140);
- būt FBB, EAL: Coastal, Eastern būθ DTB, EAL vs. būt EVM, BMC, BUDDRUSS 1988:71, NAWATA 1981:19, EAL: Raxšānī, Kēčī, Lāšārī, būt EAL (Sarāwānī) "became" (NP, Prth. būd);
- $pahl\bar{\iota}(g)$  SHG, DTB, GCD vs.  $pahl\bar{\iota}(g)$  SHG "side" (cf. p. 163f.);
- $p\bar{\imath}nz^{108}$  vs.  $p\bar{\imath}nz^{109}$  "heel";
- *trī* SHG, FBB, MORGENSTIERNE 1948:284 vs. *trū* SHG, FBB, BMC, MORGENSTIERNE 1932:51 "aunt" (cf. p. 124f.);
- *dīt* SHG vs. *dūt(t)* SHG, EAL, BMC, EVM, NAWATA 1981:37 "smoke" (NP, Prth. *dūd*, cf. p. 142);
- $d\bar{\imath}r^{110}$  FBB, DTB, EAL (Coastal, Eastern) vs.  $d\bar{\imath}r$  SHG, EAL, EVM, BMC,  $d\bar{\imath}r$  EAL (Sarāwānī) "far" (NP, Prth.  $d\bar{\imath}r$ );
- $d\bar{\imath}k(k)$  SHG,  $d\bar{\imath}x$  DTB vs.  $d\bar{\imath}k(k)$  SHG "spindle" (NP  $d\bar{\imath}k$ ); 111
- $z\bar{t}t(t)$  SHG vs.  $z\bar{u}t(t)$  SHG, BCM, EVM "quick" (cf. p. 142);
- $z\bar{t}r$  SHG, FBB, DTB vs.  $z\bar{u}r$  SHG, FBB, EAL, BMC, EVM, NAWATA 1981:17; "take" (for the etymology, cf. p. 146, for the variant  $z\bar{o}r$ -, cf. p. 202);
- $z\bar{\imath}m(m)$  SHG, FBB, DTB vs.  $z\bar{\imath}m(m)$  SHG, EAL, FBB, NAWATA 1981:37 "scorpion" (maybe with GEIGER 1890:153 from the root of NP  $z\bar{\imath}ud$  "quick", Av. zauuah- "speed", i.e. OInd.  $\sqrt{j}\bar{\imath}u$  "hurry", although the m-suffix is unparalleled with this root, cf. p. 95);
- $was(s)\bar{u}(g)$  DTB, SHG, EAL: Coastal vs.  $was(s)\bar{u}(g)$  BMC, NAWATA 1981:5, EAL, SHG "mother-in-law";
- hūrt, ūrt, hīrt (all in EAL and SHG), īrt (SHG) "tiny". 112

108 EAL (Coastal); FBB has  $p\tilde{i}z$ , SHG  $p\bar{i}nzz$ . DTB, GCD  $p^h\bar{i}\delta$  is a spelling pronunciation (EAL 116), assuming that z is a dialectal variant of EBal.  $\delta$  (< CBal. d, cf. p. 230f.), and  $p^hi\delta$  in MORGENSTIERNE 1932:49 might be a misprint.

<sup>107</sup> For gemination of after  $\bar{\imath}$ ,  $\bar{u}$  in SHG, cf. p. 242.

<sup>109</sup> EAL; FBB has pūz, SHG pūnzz. For the etymology, cf. p. 127, for the forms in SHG, cf. p. 242.

<sup>110</sup>  $d\bar{u}r$ ,  $d\bar{r}$  (possibly, but not necessarily borrowed from NP  $d\bar{u}r$ ) is not to be confused with  $d\bar{e}r$  "late" (for which cf. p. 119).

<sup>111</sup>  $d\bar{o}k$  (GEIGER 1890:121) is declared to be an error for  $d\bar{u}k$  by GEIGER 1891:410. The word might have been borrowed from NP (GEIGER 1891:444).

<sup>112</sup> It is striking that the main entries in SHG are  $\bar{u}rt$ ,  $\bar{t}rt$  although in this source the Raxšānī loss of h does not usually take place. For a possible etymology, cf. p. 122.

Since the change of  $\bar{u} > \bar{t}$  is an ongoing process, even secondary  $\bar{u}$  resulting from  $\bar{o}$  (cf. p. 200) is affected in some cases:<sup>113</sup>

- SHG, FBB  $s\bar{t}c(\check{c})in$ , Eastern (DTB, EAL)  $s\bar{t}sin$  vs.  $s\bar{u}c(\check{c})in^{114}$  SHG "needle", NAWATA 1981:37 has the etymologically correct  $s\bar{o}cin$  (cf. p. 85, 142);
- maybe the word for "cat" belongs here as well: it is found in the forms  $p\bar{\iota}\check{s}\check{s}\bar{\iota}$  (SHG)  $p\bar{\iota}\check{s}(\check{s})\bar{\iota}$  (GEB, SHG),  $pi\check{s}(\check{s})\bar{\iota}$  (BMC, FBB, GEB, EAL, SHG),  $pi\check{s}ik$  (EVM),  $pu\check{s}\check{s}$  (SHG). He considering the Bal. words alone, one might say that  $p\bar{\iota}\check{s}\bar{\iota}$  is the primary form (gemination after  $\bar{\iota}\iota$ ,  $\bar{\iota}$  being regular in SHG, cf. p. 242) and could derive from \*pōšī (whether or not this has been borrowed from NP  $p\bar{\iota}\check{s}ak$ ) by raising (cf. p. 200),  $p\bar{\iota}\check{s}(\check{s})\bar{\iota}$  being the dialectal variant of  $p\bar{\iota}\check{s}(\check{s})\bar{\iota}$ .  $pu\check{s}\check{s}\bar{\iota}$  might be explained as arisen from  $p\bar{\iota}\check{s}\bar{\iota}$  by isometric substitution (cf. p. 209),  $pi\check{s}\check{s}\bar{\iota}$  might have either come about in the same way or by a palatalisation of  $pu\check{s}\check{s}\bar{\iota}$  (see above). However, with regard to the existence of NP  $p\bar{\iota}\check{s}\bar{\iota}$  and  $pu\check{s}ak$  and Psht.  $pi\check{s}i$ , other solutions are possible as well; irregular developments in a word from the sphere of child language or among the terms of endearment are also probable.

A hypercorrect reversal of the change  $\bar{u} > \bar{\iota}$  may be seen in  $\check{s}\bar{u}nz$  "green, blue", 117 if this variant is secondary to  $\check{s}\bar{\iota}nz$ . 118

The change of  $\bar{u} > \bar{\iota}$  is seen in quite a number of other modern Ir. languages (including Pashto dialects). The Bal. change must be independent from the developments seen in the other languages, however, since it only occurs in some dialects, and the same is likely to apply to the corresponding change in other Ir. languages. The use of  $\bar{u} > \bar{\iota}$  for a grouping of Western Ir. languages (e.g. LECOQ 1989) thus seems problematic.

<sup>113</sup> For *srēn* "loins", cf. p. 202.

Raxšānī according to EAL. There is an unexpected e in some variants cited in EAL, where <e> is used for what is  $\bar{e}$  in the present work: Kēčī, Lāšārī  $s\bar{u}\check{c}en$  and Sarāwānī  $s\bar{u}\check{c}en$ , only the latter of which might be interpreted as showing IrBal. [e] for /i/ (cf. p. 261). Maybe the reason for these forms is the entry  $s\bar{u}\check{c}\bar{e}n$  in EVM, likewise not entirely clear; maybe this is a misinterpretation of ZARUBIN 1932 who uses <e> for  $\bar{e}$  and <e> for an allophone of i (ZARUBIN 1932:VII).

<sup>115</sup> For variants with secondary nasalisation, cf. p. 217.

<sup>116</sup> For further cognates in Ir. languages, cf. GEIGER 1890:142.

<sup>117</sup> Cf. p. 113f. for an etymological discussion and p. 214 for further variants.

<sup>118</sup>  $pul\bar{u}s$  "police" (Engl. loanword) need not show a Bal. change of  $\bar{\iota} > \bar{u}$  (pace FARRELL 2003:180) since  $pul\bar{u}s$  is widespread in the languages of Northern Pakistan and Balochi may have borrowed the word in this form (Georg Buddruss, personal communication).

## 3.1.2.3.2 Raising and Lowering

## **Raising**

Although as a rule, MIr.  $\bar{e}$ ,  $\bar{o}$  (< OIr. ai, au, cf. II 2.3.3) are preserved in Balochi, there are examples of the same merger  $\bar{e}$ ,  $\bar{\iota} > \bar{\iota}$  and  $\bar{o}$ ,  $\bar{u} > \bar{u}$  which has operated regularly in Standard Modern Persian.

# **CBal.** $\bar{e} > \bar{i}$ : 119

- ABG ādīk vs. usual ādēnk "mirror"; 120
- GEB  $\bar{i}$  (dem.pron.) vs. usual  $\bar{e}$  (cf. V 1.2) might belong here, if it exists; <sup>121</sup>
- ABG  $\check{c}\bar{\imath}r^{122}$  ( $\check{c}\bar{\imath}r$   $b\bar{u}ag$  "to hide") for usual  $\check{c}\bar{e}r$  (Eastern  $\check{s}\bar{e}r$ ) "under";
- ABG  $d\bar{\imath}m\bar{a}$  vs. usual  $d\bar{e}m\bar{a}$  "in front of" (obl. case of  $d\bar{e}m$  "face") could have been influenced by the NP cognate  $d\bar{\imath}m$  (MP, Prth.  $d\bar{e}m$ );
- EBal.  $r\bar{\imath}$  vs. other dialects  $r\bar{e}$  "pour" (cf. p. 151);
- ABG  $r\bar{\imath}k$  "desert" vs. usual  $r\bar{e}k$  "sand" (cf. p. 97);
- $-g\bar{\imath}n$  in BMC  $r\bar{o}d$ - $g\bar{\imath}n$  "red, reddish" (from  $r\bar{o}d$  "copper", NP  $r\bar{u}y$ , MP  $r\bar{o}y$ ): one might be tempted to derive the word from \*r $\bar{o}d$ -g $\bar{o}n$  "copper-coloured", 124 but the suffix is probably a cognate of the MP, Prth. possessive suffix  $-g\bar{e}n$ ; 125

<sup>119</sup>  $g\bar{\imath}n$  "breath" is probably not a case of  $\bar{\imath}en > \bar{\imath}n$  (cf. p. 136).

<sup>120</sup> For further variants and nasalisation processes, cf. p. 214, for the etymology, cf. p. 79.

<sup>121</sup> GEIGER's assumption (1891:408) that  $\bar{\iota}$  has been borrowed from NP does not seem likely.

<sup>122</sup> Note that simple  $\bar{r}r$  cited by GEIGER 1890:129 is not attested (Geiger's source DAMES 1881:46 and DTB have only  $\bar{e}r$ ). As  $\bar{e}r$  has been derived from OIr. adari "under" (Av.  $a\delta a^iri$ ), it would seem that it has been borrowed from Persian (HÜBSCHMANN 1890:556), cf. MP  $\bar{e}r$ . Since  $\check{c}\bar{e}r$  cannot have been borrowed from NP (which has the parallel formation z- $\bar{e}r$ ), however, it must be a compound formed in Balochi from  $\check{c}(a)$  / EBal.  $\check{s}(a)$  and  $\bar{e}r$ . Alternatively, it seems possible that it is an inherited word: Sogd. c' $\delta r$  "below, under" (GERSHEVITCH 1954:232) might indicate that the composition with the preposition OIr.  $ha\check{c}a$  is an older formation, and it appears possible that MIr.  $a\delta r$ ,  $a\gamma r$  gives  $\bar{e}r$  in Balochi (cf. p. 119). If so, EBal.  $\check{s}\bar{e}r$  would show an adaptation to the preposition  $\check{s}(a)$ .

<sup>123</sup> The second meaning "river-like" (BMC) may be due to a popular etymology with  $r\bar{o}d$  "river" (cf. p. 270).

<sup>124</sup> Cf. NP  $g\bar{u}n$ , MPZ  $g\bar{o}n$  "colour" (MP, Prth.  $g\bar{o}nag$ , Av. gaona- "sort, kind"). One would have to assume \* $g\bar{o}n > *g\bar{u}n$  with subsequent  $\bar{u} > \bar{\iota}$  (cf. p. 198). For  $g\bar{o}n$  "with" as a possible further reflex of this word in Balochi, cf. p. 181, 214.

<sup>125</sup> Examples include Prth. zēn-gēn "armed" (zēn "weapon", RASTORGUEVA/MOLČANOVA 1981a:196), nām-gēn "famous", MPM awezmāh-gēn "lewd" (DURKIN-MEISTERERNST p. 114). The suffix is quite common in Armenian, e.g. srtagin "hearty", divagin "demonical" (Ralf-Peter Ritter, personal

- GEB, SHG  $m\bar{t}k(k)$  "top of head", EVM  $m\bar{t}$  "halter" vs. EAL  $m\bar{e}k$  "stake, pole, top of head",  $m\bar{e}h$  "tent peg" (NP, Prth.  $m\bar{e}x$ ): the words may have been borrowed from or influenced by CNP  $m\bar{t}x$ , NP  $m\bar{e}x$  (cf. p. 82f.);<sup>126</sup>
- *nīwag* "fruit" vs. NP *mēwa* (cf. p. 268);
- hīt "young grain" vs. MP xwēd, NP xawēd (cf. p. 123);
- adj.suffix  $-\bar{\imath}n$  in ABG  $kuhn\bar{\imath}^{127}$  "old-fashioned" vs.  $-\bar{e}n$  otherwise (cf. p. 151).

### **CBal.** $\bar{o} > \bar{u}$ : 128

- GRIERSON 1921:405f. notes  $\bar{u}\delta\bar{a}$  in the EBal. dialect Kasrānī (for which cf. p. 231) corresponding to  $\bar{o}d\bar{a}$  "there" in SWBal. (cf. p. 101);
- there is a variant  $j\bar{u}$  "river" for (BMC)  $j\bar{o}(h)$  (cf. p. 104);
- FBB *činčū* "how much" (cf. p. 195) vs. EAL *činčō* and *čō* "so (much)" (all sources);
- SWBal.  $s\bar{o}p$  "apple" appears as  $s\bar{o}f$  in EBal. according to BMC and EAL, but DTB has  $s\bar{u}f$ ; 129
- $s\bar{o}\check{c}in > s\bar{u}\check{c}(\check{c})in > s\bar{i}\check{c}(\check{c})in$  (cf. p. 198) "needle";
- according to EAL, *srōš* (cf. p. 131, 205) "elbow" has a variant *surūšk*, this variant is also the basis for *surušk* (for which cf. p. 188);
- $k\bar{u}r$  (EAL, BMC) "river" is a (according to BMC, Raxšānī dialectal) variant of  $k\bar{o}r$ , kaur (for which II 3.3.2.2);
- hōrk "empty" has a variant hurk (cf. p. 188) which seems to imply a stage \*hūrk.

communication). It is derived by SALEMANN 1901:280 from \*-k-aina-, i.e. a combination of a k-suffix with the adj. suffix Av.  $-a\bar{e}na$ -, Prth., Bal.  $-\bar{e}n$  (cf. p. 151).

<sup>126</sup> For mik "nail", cf. p. 187.

<sup>127</sup> It is not clear whether this word is meant as  $kuhn\tilde{t}$  (suggested by the Arabic orthography and its place in the glossary) or  $k\bar{o}hn\tilde{t}$  (thus the intention of the transcription). Both kuhn and  $k\bar{o}hn$  are attested in other sources (cf. p. 211).

<sup>128</sup> If the vowel of NP  $m\bar{o}y$  "hair" is genuine (which is not sure, cf. p. 142),  $m\bar{u}d$ ,  $m\bar{u}d$  might belong here, too. Otherwise, NP would show a hypercorrect change also observed in some words in Balochi (see below). A further example might be involved in  $p\bar{u}\check{s}(\check{s})\bar{\imath}$  (cf. p. 198).

<sup>129</sup> As there are some apparently related words for "apple" in other NWIr. languages (MORGENSTIERNE 1932:50), Bal.  $s\bar{o}p$  is unlikely to have been borrowed from Si.  $s\bar{u}p^hu$ . It is also difficult to see how Bal.  $s\bar{o}p$  etc. could be related to NP  $s\bar{e}b$ ; DTB assumes that  $s\bar{u}f$  has been borrowed from Arabic, where, however, the word does not seem to be attested (MORGENSTIERNE 1932:50).

Some terms of relationship have variants in  $-\bar{u}$  besides the more usual ones in  $-\bar{o}$ : 130

- $m\bar{a}t\bar{u}$ ,  $m\bar{a}s\bar{u}$  "stepmother" besides  $m\bar{a}t\bar{o}$ , similarly,  $pit\bar{u}$ ,  $pis(s)\bar{u}$  "stepfather" besides  $pit\bar{o}$ ,  $pis(s)\bar{o}$  (for the sources, cf. p. 307);
- SHG  $n\bar{a}k\bar{u}(g)$  (also reported by GEIGER 1890:138) vs.  $n\bar{a}k\bar{o}$  (everywhere else) "uncle", <sup>131</sup> the suffix might be secondary in this word anyway since the cognates do not show it (Av.  $nii\bar{a}ka$ -, OP  $niy\bar{a}ka$ -, NP  $niy\bar{a}$ , Prth.  $niy\bar{a}g$ ).

The vowel change might have been motivated by the existence of the common suffix  $-\bar{u}(g)$  (cf. II 2.4.4.1), which is e.g. seen in  $was(s)\bar{u}$  "mother-in-law" (see below).

## Lowering

A number of words show lowering which might be interpreted as a hypercorrect reverse of the raising process just discussed.

## $\bar{e} > \bar{i}$ : 132

- $gr\bar{e}(w)$  "weep", borrowed from NP  $g(i)r\bar{i}$  (cf. p. 162);
- *gušnagē* (GRIERSON 1921:376) "hunger" (if not an error) instead of *gušnagī* (from *gušnag* "hungry", for which cf. p. 100, 127, 178).

### $\bar{u} > \bar{o}$ :

• BMC, EAL  $\bar{a}x\bar{o}bat$  for  $\bar{a}k\bar{u}bat$  (BMC) besides  $\bar{a}kubat$ ,  $\bar{a}kibat$  "future" (NP-Ar.  $^c\bar{a}qibat$ , cf. p. 193, 286);

<sup>130</sup> In a group of family terms given by FARRELL 1990:80 and RZEHAK 1991:185, there is a suffix  $-\bar{o}$  or  $-\bar{u}$  in words for not directly related relatives, e.g.  $\check{c}uk\bar{o}$  "stepchild",  $m\bar{a}t\bar{o}$  "stepmother",  $pit\bar{o}$  "stepfather" (all formed from the corresponding terms for non-step relatives, cf. III 2). It seems likely that the variants in  $-\bar{o}$  are the more original ones since raising is more common than lowering. Moreover, in a number of cases SHG does not show the original forms of suffixes, e.g. in  $wass\bar{o}$  "mother-in-law" (see below) where  $wass\bar{u}$  of other sources can be shown to be the older form (cf. p. 130 and above), thus in this respect, the other sources seem to be more trustworthy.

<sup>131</sup> For the semantics, cf. p. 301.

<sup>132</sup> It is not quite clear how ABG مناذه šaze> (sic!) "marriage; happiness, pleasure" is meant. If  $\delta \bar{a}z\bar{e}$  is intended (which is how the transcription in ABG is normally used), the word might represent NP  $\delta \bar{a}d\bar{t}$  "joy" with EBal.  $d > \delta >$  (dialectal, cf. p. 230f.) z and hypercorrect  $-\bar{e}$  for  $-\bar{t}$ , maybe by reinterpretation of the abstract suffix as the indefinite article. For  $bar\bar{e}bar$ , see below. The other instances of  $\bar{e}$  for i or  $\bar{t}$  noted by GRIERSON 1921:376 are likely to require other explanations (if they exist): for the pronoun  $\bar{t}$  instead of  $\bar{e}$ , cf. p. 243;  $\delta \bar{e}$  for  $\delta i$  "from" (more commonly,  $\delta a$ ,  $\delta a$  etc., cf. p. 85, 229) might show analogy to or composition with the demonstrative pronoun  $\bar{e}$ ;  $\delta \bar{e}$  "what" is not secondary to  $\delta \bar{t}$ , but rather the other way round (cf. p. 107f.).

- ABG annō for usual annūn, annū "right now" (cf. p. 214);<sup>133</sup>
- GRIERSON 1921:376 bōt for usual būt (past stem of bay- "become");
- ABG dōt for usual dūt "smoke" (cf. p. 142);
- ABG  $z\bar{o}r$  for usual  $z\bar{u}r$  "take" (cf. p. 146);
- with regard to the variants with  $-\bar{o}$  from ABG just cited, it is probable that ABG  $z\bar{a}l$ - $b\bar{o}l$  is secondary vs. BMC, SHG  $z\bar{a}l$ - $b\bar{u}l$  "woman, feminine"; the etymology of  $b\bar{u}l$  is unknown (maybe there is some connection with  $b\bar{u}l$  "nose-ring"?); 134
- SHG wass $\bar{o}$  besides normal was(s) $\bar{u}$ , was(s) $\bar{t}$  "mother-in-law" is perhaps influenced by the relation terms in  $-\bar{o}$ , see above.

#### $\bar{o} > \bar{e}$ :

There are some words which are best explained by assuming raising of  $\bar{o} > \bar{u}$ , subsequent change of  $\bar{u} > \bar{\iota}$  (cf. p. 196f.) and hypercorrect lowering:

- barēbar (SHG) for (ABG, SHG) barōbar (cf. p. 283, 286) for barābar "equal";
- $sr\bar{e}n$  "loins" instead of expected †srōn (Av. sraoni-) might have come about approximately in the following way: \*srōn > \*srūn (raising of the vowel, cf. NP  $sur\bar{u}n$ ) >  $sr\bar{u}n$  (attested in Leech 1838 according to Geiger 1890:145, cf. NP  $sur\bar{u}n$ ) and the hypercorrect reinstallation of  $\bar{e}$ . The Bal. word might also have been borrowed from NP  $sur\bar{u}n$  and then suffered a change of the vowel. 135

# 3.1.2.3.3 Diphthongisation<sup>136</sup>

There are some cases of ai, au where one would expect  $\bar{e}$ ,  $\bar{o}$ , respectively. It is not clear whether the phenomenon is to be regarded as a feature of a certain dialect, all examples but the last three coming from ABG:

<sup>133</sup> This word is a variant of *nūn* "now" (NP *nūn*, OInd. *nūnám* etc.). According to GERSHEVITCH 1979:141, NP *hanūz* "yet, still" < MPZ <'hnwc> goes back to a compound from OP *aðai* "still, as yet" and \*nūči (cf. Av. *nūčit*), MPM <'hnwn(-c)> "now" would then show *aðai* + \*nūnam. If Bal. *hannūn* (only EAL) exists, it might show unetymological *h*- (cf. p. 154) and/or a reinterpretation as involving *ham* as first syllable (*ham-nūn* is the interpretation of *hannūn* by EAL 108).

<sup>134</sup> *zāl* "woman" is a NP loanword, cf. GEIGER 1891:444. According to EAL, *būl* is a borrowing from Lahnda. For a photo of a Bal. woman with nose-ring, cf. MATHESON 1967:22a.

<sup>135</sup> An alternative explanation is that the -i seen in Av. sraoni- effected a change of the preceding vowel with the result of NP surīn (KLINGENSCHMITT 1972:73<sup>195</sup>, 2000:206<sup>52</sup>, GIPPERT 1993/I:243) and Bal. srēn. NP surūn "buttocks" must then be a dialectal form without umlaut (GIPPERT 1993/I:243), perhaps influenced by sarūn "horn". (Note that the NP forms show NWIr. features, the SWIr. form would be \*sēn.) A second case for such a change is lacking for Balochi, though.

<sup>136</sup> For the diphthongisation  $\bar{e} > \bar{\iota}e$ ,  $\bar{o} > \bar{\iota}e$  in Lāšārī, cf. p. 261.

ai for  $\bar{e}$ :

- $kardai^{137}$  "some, any" for  $k^h ard\bar{e}$  (GRIERSON 1921:394, for further discussion, cf. p. 183) might involve a reinterpretation of  $-\bar{e}$  with regard to the fact that in the case of the gen.sg., variants of the ending include  $-\bar{e}$  and -ai (cf. p. 108);
- gaištar "majority" besides  $g\bar{e}\check{s}tar$  "additional" ( $g\bar{e}\check{s}tir$  in other sources) is the comparative of  $g\bar{e}\check{s}$  "more" (for which cf. p. 279).

au for  $\bar{o}$ : 138

- pauz "mouth, face" for usual  $p\bar{o}z$  "nose" (NP  $p\bar{o}z$  "mouth etc."), <sup>139</sup>
- jau "canal" vs. usual j $\bar{o}(h)$  "river" (for which cf. p. 104),
- kaupag "shoulder" besides kōfaġ "id." (usual SWBal. form kōpag, cf. p. 81);
- EBal. bauf (DTB, GCD) "mattress" besides b\(\bar{o}f\) (GLADSTONE 1874), SWBal. b\(\bar{o}p\) (BMC, FBB, EAL); 140
- EBal. naux besides n\(\bar{o}x\) "bride" (cf. p. 102);
- the relationship of au "and" (BMC, GRIERSON 1921:376) to  $\bar{o}$  (FBB, GRIERSON 1921:376) and  $u^{141}$  is not quite clear. However,  $\bar{o}$  and au are somehow secondary to u (Av. uta, Prth., MP ud, u-); the loss of the dental may be due to the word being an unaccented / allegro form, unless it has been borrowed from Persian.

<sup>137</sup> Note that the k- is not aspirated. The orthography is کردے (sic).

<sup>138</sup> There is a parallel change  $\bar{o} > ou$  (instead of  $\bar{u}$ ) which occasionally occurs in CNP, e.g. roušan "light (adj.)"  $< r\bar{o} šan$ .

taupak "gun" vs. tōpak (GEB, EAL), tūpak(k) (BMC, EAL, SHG) need not be secondary since NP also has taupak, tūpak, cf. also p. 180. The same applies to BMC bilaur vs. SHG bulūr, EAL bilōr, b(u)lōr (Bal. informants) "crystal, glass" since the variants occurring in NP according to STEINGASS 1892:199 are ballūr, billaur, bulūr, from where the Bal. variants bilaur, bulūr may have been borrowed. Parthian has <br/>bylwr>, which COLDITZ 2000:280 transcribes bilōr (cf. p. 281); this would match Bal. bilōr, b(u)lōr very well. The word which has wandered all over Asia originally comes from a Middle Ind. language, cf. Pali veluriya (HÜBSCHMANN 1899:19), CARDONA 1980.

<sup>139</sup> For variants, cf. p. 216. If BAILEY's 1979:250b etymology (Khot. *paujsīda* "they kiss", Orm. *pōč* "kiss") is correct, *pōz* must have been borrowed from NP; the same applies to Psht. *pōza* (MORGENSTIERNE 2003:68). The relationship to Osset. *fynʒ* etc. which seems to go back to \*pinʒ-(ABAEV I:497) is not clear.

<sup>140</sup> There seem to be no cognates apart from MPZ, NP  $b\bar{o}b$ .

<sup>141</sup> BMC has *u* only in compounds and the like, but in ABG, SHG, NAWATA 1981:29, BUDDRUSS 1981:82, *u* is the only variant. BUDDRUSS 1988:82 also has NP-Ar. *wa*.

#### 3.1.2.3.4 Vowel assimilation

In some examples, the quality of a vowel is assimilated to that of a neighbouring (usually: following) vowel:

### with u:

- DTB, EVM, EAL uštur besides uštir, uštar "camel" (cf. p. 158f., p. 195);
- EVM uškumag besides ABG, SHG šikam "stomach" (cf. p. 170, 286);
- SHG, EAL *uškun* "hear" < \*uškan- or \*uškin- (cf. p. 147);
- DTB dužux vs. SWBal. dajuk etc. (cf. p. 227) "hedgehog";
- ABG qubūl "accepted" besides kabūl, (NP-Ar.) qabūl;
- ABG, BMC *lunkuk* besides FBB, SHG *lankuk* "finger" (cf. p. 181, 293).

# with $a:^{142}$

• *jagar* "liver" (borrowed from NP *jigar*) may be interpreted either as vowel assimilation or as a hypercorrect form reversing a "palatalisation" (cf. p. 195).

# 3.1.2.4 Anaptyxis

Anaptyxis is one of the strategies to avoid clumsy consonant clusters (another strategy is metathesis of the consonants, for which cf. II 3.1.1.2, 3.2.1.1.3, 3.2.2.1, 3.3.1.1). Although the majority of cases are loanwords, genuine words (e.g.  $dr\bar{a}j$  "long" and the words with sr-) are affected, too. Anaptyxis seems to be particularly common in (potentially) EBal. sources. Anaptyctical vowels are inserted in word-final or word-initial consonant clusters, but not in word-internal ones. The anaptyctical vowel either corresponds to the vowels of the surrounding syllables or is the neutral vowel a (cf. II 3.1.2.3.4, 3.2.1.2).

Again, a remark of caution has to be added: differences in the occurrence of anaptyctical vowels might be due to imperfect perception and notation by the respective

<sup>142</sup> It cannot be ruled out that the cases of a < u in Eastern Balochi (cf. p. 236) are to be placed here.

<sup>143</sup> GEIGER 1891:405, 408f. treats phenomena of anaptyxis together with processes of vowel change and does not differentiate for dialects.

<sup>144</sup> Cf. e.g. *zahar* "anger" (see below) vs. *zahran* "angry", *sāṛat*<sup>ħ</sup> "cold" (see below) vs. *sāṛt*<sup>ħ</sup>ī "cold (noun)" (all ABG), *šukur*, *šukar* (see below) vs. *šukrāt* (BMC), *šukrīā* (FBB) "thanks". The only exception among dozens of examples is ABG *qutubī* "Northern" which is probably analogical to \*qutub "North", even if ABG has *qutb* (NP-Ar. *qutb*), but *kutub* is attested in ABG, BMC, EAL.

sources. Furthermore, variants with and without vowel seem to occur in the speech of the same speaker, probably depending – among other things – on stress patterns and the position of the word in the sentence (Lutz Rzehak, personal communication). Note also that some sources have drawn their material from metrical texts, where the number and structure of syllables might be affected by the necessities of the metre.<sup>145</sup>

Anaptyxis in word-initial consonant clusters may be sorted into the following groups:

- it occurs in all words with *sr* (cf. II 2.2.2.3):<sup>146</sup> *surup* (BMC, PIERCE 1874) vs. *srup* (EAL, SHG) "lead (metal)"; *surum* (DAMES 1881) vs. *srumb* (LEECH 1838, SHG) "hoof"; *sarōš* (GLADSTONE 1874, HITTU RAM 1881, DAMES 1881, DTB, GCD, EAL: EBal.), *surōš* (EAL), *surūšk* (EAL: Coastal) vs. *srōš* (SHG, EAL)<sup>147</sup> "elbow"; *sarēn* (GLADSTONE 1874, HITTU RAM 1881, DAMES 1881, DTB, GCD), *sirīn* (LEECH 1838) vs. *srēn* "loins";
- anaptyxis in other consonant clusters of the type #Cr- is rather common: 148
  EBal. birāϑ (DAMES 1881), barās (GLADSTONE 1874) vs. SWBal. brāt "brother" (cf. p. 78, 230); darāj, darāž<sup>149</sup> vs. SWBal. drāj "long"; darašk, ABG daršak<sup>150</sup> "tree" besides drašk (DTB), SWBal. dračk; darōg (PIERCE 1874, ABG, EAL) for drōg<sup>151</sup> "lie" (Prth. drōγ); zirā (MARSTON 1877) "sea" and zirih (DAMES 1881) "spring, well" vs. Av. zraiiah- "sea" (NP daryā, Prth. zrēh); garand, garandag (DAMES 1881, DTB, GCD) for grand, grandag<sup>152</sup> "thunder, to thunder"; girē- (GLADSTONE 1874, DAMES 1881, DTB) besides grē- (DTB), SWBal. grē(w)- "weep" (cf. p. 162);

<sup>145</sup> For references to the etymologies of the words presented here, cf. V 2.

<sup>146</sup> *surōp* "apple" (FARRELL 1990:47), if not a misprint for *srōp* (thus FARRELL 1990:84 and SHG) might show that anaptyxis occasionally also occurs in Karachi Balochi. The etymology of *srōp* is not clear yet, and the word has been only reported from Karachi so far. It is not clear if one might speculate about some contamination of the word for "apple" found in other dialects, *sōp* (cf. p. 200) with Ur. *surūp* "well-formed, beautiful". If so, this word would not show anaptyxis.

<sup>147</sup> According to EAL, *srōš* is Eastern Balochi, which seems improbable given its attestation in SHG; EAL in addition has *srōšk* without dialect specification. For *šarōš*, cf. p. 180, for *surūšk*, cf. p. 200, for *surušk*, cf. p. 188.

<sup>148</sup> Note that a next to r is often changed to i (cf. p. 194f.).

<sup>149</sup> Both variants occur in ABG, darāj shows the SWBal. consonantism (cf. 86, 229).

<sup>150</sup> GEIGER 1890:120 states that EBal. has *darašk* and *drašk* without specifying which source shows which variant; cf. also p. 166, 189.

<sup>151</sup> Bal. drōg might, but need not have been borrowed from NP durōg (GEIGER 1891:447).

<sup>152</sup> The past stem is grandit (BMC, EAL), garandaϑ- (DTB, GCD), cf. also p. 317.

the only other example of anaptyxis in a word-initial consonant cluster is safēϑ (LEECH 1838), sawēϑ (DAMES 1881), sawēs (GLADSTONE 1874) besides swēϑ (DTB) vs. SWBal. spēt etc. "white" (cf. p. 90, 152); for šawā "you", cf. p. 126, 218, 232f.

Anaptyxis in word-final consonant clusters can be seen in a number of Ir. loanwords and rather regularly in Ar. loanwords of the structure CVCC:

• words of the structure CVCr quite regularly show anaptyxis in ABG and comparatively often in other sources as well; only some examples are given here:  $at(t)ar^{153}$  (ABG, EAL) vs. atr (EAL) "perfume" (NP-Ar. 'atr), asur (DTB, FBB, SHG) vs. asr (EAL) "afternoon (prayer)" (NP-Ar. 'asr), bahar (MARSTON 1877, HITTU RAM 1881, GRIERSON 1921:391, DTB) vs.  $bahr^{154}$  "share", pajar (SHG), fajar (FBB) "morning (prayer)" (NP-Ar. fajr), jibar (ABG, cf. p. 194) "force" vs. NP-Ar. jabr, zahar (ABG) "anger" besides  $zahr^{155}$  "poison", sabar (FBB) vs. sabr (all other sources) "patience" (NP-Ar. sabr), sahar (ABG, in  $sahar - g\bar{o}$  "sorcerer") vs. sahr (ABG, cf. p. 236) from (DTB, EAL) sihr "magic" (NP-Ar. sihr), sukar (ABG), sukur (FBB) vs. sukr (DTB, SHG) "thanks" (NP-Ar. sukr), qabar (ABG), sukar (FBB) vs. sukr (EAL, SHG) "grave" (NP-Ar. sukr), sukar (SHG) vs. sukr (BMC) "measure" (NP-Ar. sukr);

156 FBB, EAL also have kabaristān "graveyard".

<sup>153</sup> According to Rossi 1979:163, *attar* is also found in Brahui. For gemination in loanwords, cf. II 3.3.1.5.

<sup>154</sup> This variant is given in EAL, SHG; for the variant *bār*, cf. p. 253. The word is more likely to derive from PIr. \*baxϑra-, cf. Av. *baxəδra*-, Prth. *bahr* "portion", OInd. √bʰaj "give a share" (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:33) than from Av. *hu-baδra*-, OInd. *bʰadrá*- "fortunate" (thus GEIGER 1891:446, HORN 1893:56). If so, Bal. *bahr* has been borrowed from NP *bahr* (originally a NWIr. form, cf. KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:202) as GEIGER 1891:446 assumes since PIr. \*ϑr is likely to result in Bal. *s*(*s*) (cf. p. 89). Alternatively, one might assume a simplification \*baxϑr- > \*baxr (Nicholas Sims-Williams, personal communication) which would regularly yield Bal. *bahr* (cf. p. 119).

The two words are in reality the same. zahr means "poison" in ABG, EAL, SHG, "anger" in DTB, EAL, "bitter" in DTB. The WBal. variant (for  $ah > \bar{a}$ , cf. p. 252f.)  $z\bar{a}r$  means "anger" (EVM, EAL), "angry, bitter" (BMC, FBB). The etymology is probably \*ja- $\vartheta$ ra- "medium for killing" (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:71); as Sogd. j'r derives from \*jan $\vartheta$ ra- (GERSHEVITCH 1965:14 $^{1}$ ), the WIr. words may also go back to this protoform (Nicholas Sims-Williams, personal communication). Bal. zahr (vs. Prth. zahr) is a NP borrowing (NP zahr, GEIGER 1891:463). It is possible that the semantics of zahr, zar have been influenced by zar "lament" which may have been borrowed from NP zar. zar (also Prth. zar) has been connected to PIE \* $\sqrt{g}$ ar "make noise" (cf. BAILEY 1979:355a, LIV p. 161). Alternatively, one might assume a connection with Av.  $\sqrt{z}$ ar, OInd.  $\sqrt{h}r_s^i$ , cf. Av.  $huu\bar{a}z\bar{a}ra$ - "easy to insult", NP azar- /azard "torment" and further cognates noted by BAILEY 1979:354a, LIV p. 178.

- words of the structure CVC*l* show an anaptyctic vowel in ABG and occasionally in other sources:
  - 'aqqal (ABG) vs.  $akl^{157}$  (EVM, EAL, SHG) "intelligence" (NP-Ar. 'aql), puhal (DTB) vs. puhl (ABG, SHG, cf. p. 121, 131, 147, 211) "bridge", tahal (ABG) vs. tahl (EAL, SHG)<sup>158</sup> "bitter", šikil (ABG, SHG) vs. šikl (SHG) "form" (NP-Ar. šikl), ģusul (ABG) "bath" (NP-Ar. ģusl "ritual washing"), faṭal (ABG) "favour" (NP-Ar. faṭl) ABG, kubul (FBB), kubal (ABG) vs. kubl<sup>159</sup> (EAL, SHG) "lock" (NP-Ar. qufl);
- examples for anaptyxis in other clusters (ordered by word-final consonant): turšap (ABG) vs. turšp<sup>160</sup> "sour", sāṛatʰ besides sārt¹<sup>61</sup> "cold", zabaḥ (ABG) "slaughtering" (NP-Ar. zabḥ), fataḥ (ABG) "victory" (NP-Ar. fatḥ), ʿahad (ABG) "period, era", ʿahaz¹<sup>62</sup> "marriage contract" (both ABG) vs. ahd¹<sup>63</sup> (SHG) "time; promise" (NP-Ar. ʿahd), šahad (ABG) vs. šahd (EAL, SHG)¹<sup>64</sup> "honey" (NP-Ar. šahd) ABG, magaz (FBB), magaz (ABG) vs. magz (SHG), magz (EAL)¹<sup>65</sup> "brain", pažam (ABG) vs. pažm (EAL, SHG) "wool" (cf. p. 178), ġaban "fraud" (NP-Ar. ġabn).

Especially noteworthy are the following examples (all from ABG):

• *cainaš* vs. EAL, EVM *aiš* (NP-Ar. *caiš*) "luxury" shows an anaptyctical vowel after a secondary nasal (cf. p. 216);

<sup>157</sup> For further variants and discussion of this word, cf. p. 265, 267.

<sup>158</sup> NAWATA 1981 has the WBal. form  $t\bar{a}l$ , BMC the combinated variant  $t\bar{a}hl$  (cf. p. 253). For the etymology, cf. p. 119.

<sup>159</sup> Rossi 1979:219 also reports kulaf (vs. kulf, kulp of different sources, cf. p. 265, 267).

<sup>160</sup> *turšp* is found in EAL only, the other sources have *trupš*, *trupš* (cf. p. 145, 176, 209). The sequence -*ur*- in *turšap* might be due to the NP loanword *turš* (BMC, EAL; DTB, GEB *truš*).

<sup>161</sup> Thus also all SWBal. sources. DTB has  $s\bar{a}rt^h$ . For the etymology, cf. p. 189, for r > r, cf. p. 183.

<sup>162</sup> For EBal. dialectal  $d > \delta > z$ , cf. p. 230f. The two words are in fact the same.

<sup>163</sup> For EAL āhd, cf. p. 253.

<sup>164</sup> Further variants are *šāht* (BMC), *šāt* (BMC, EAL), *šaht* (EAL); the first two show WBal. features (cf. p. 253), for the devoicing of word-final consonants, cf. II 3.3.1.4.

<sup>165</sup> Although it is possible that Bal. *magz* shows a spontaneous metathesis, it may also be explained as a loanword from NP *magz*. The original order of the consonants is preserved in Bal. *mazg* (cf. p. 88), MPZ *mazg*, Chor. *mzγ*, Av. *mazga*- etc. According to GERSHEVITCH 1965:209, MPM *magž* shows a change *zg* > <gj> *gž* regular for MPM. NP *magz* may be explained as showing a contamination of the MP forms and/or the influence of Buddhist Sogd. *mγz*- (suggestion by Desmond Durkin-Meisterernst). For *majg*, *mažg*, cf. p. 88.

- sawaz "green" vs. otherwise EBal. saβz, sauz, SWBal. sabz; 166
- in *hawar* (otherwise always *haur*, cf. p. 158f.) "rain", the /w/ which is part of a diphthong in at least some other dialects changes to consonantal status.

 $s\bar{a}_rat^h$  and 'ainas' show that anaptyxis is secondary to the change of r > r (cf. II 3.1.1.4) and the introduction of secondary nasals (cf. p. 215f.). Given that similar sorts of anaptyxis occur in Indic languages (e.g. Ur. šahad "honey", qabar "grave", Si. asur "dawn"), it is possible that the influence of Ind. languages plays a role here, and some NP(-Ar.) words might have been borrowed from Ind. into Balochi in that form.

### 3.1.3 Vowels + consonants

### 3.1.3.1 Metathesis of elements

## **Metathesis of liquids**

In some examples, CrV- is changed to CVr-:

- $burw\bar{a}n(k)$  etc. 167 "eyebrow" vs. NP  $abr\bar{u}$ , MP  $br\bar{u}g$ , OInd.  $b^hr\dot{u}$  etc.;
- ABG durstī "acquaintance" vs. drustī (BMC); 168
- ABG daršak vs. dračk etc. "tree" (cf. p. 166, 189, 205, 229).

EBal. wasrik (GCD), wasarik (DTB) vs. SWBal. wasirk "father-in-law" (cf. p. 196, 306) is unlikely to show a metathesis: EBal. wasar- $z\bar{a}xt$  "father-in-law" schild" suggests that the primary form for "father-in-law" in EBal. is \*wasar, to which a suffix is added to give was(a)rik. The suffix used here is probably the diminutive suffix -ik(k) found also in e.g.  $ba\check{c}ik(k)$  "son",  $\check{j}inik(k)$  "daughter" (cf. II 2.4.4.1) since simple k does not change to EBal. -x (for k > x in EBal., cf. p. 227f.).

<sup>166</sup> sabz (for variants, cf. p. 277) "blue, green, grey" is most likely to have been borrowed from NP sabz, although the etymology is not clear; MORGENSTIERNE 1927:66, 2003:73 and BAILEY 1979:140a, 355b assume \*sapači-, and compare it to Psht. sābə "grass" etc. which they derive from \*sāpači-.

<sup>167</sup> For variants, cf. p. 196, 236, for the suffix, cf. p. 165.

<sup>168</sup> *drustī* may have been borrowed from NP *durustī* "entireness, propriety"; alternatively, it may be a Bal. derivative from *drust* "all", which is most likely to have been borrowed from Pers. *drust* (MP), *durust* (NP) "right" (GEIGER 1891:444), cf. Prth. *društ*, *druwišt* (cf. also p. 124).

<sup>169</sup> For vowel elision in EBal., cf. p. 235.

<sup>170</sup> It does not seem impossible that the EBal. form *wasarix* (EAL 159) is due to Elfenbein's application of EBal. sound laws to the SWBal. forms or as "correction" of *was(a)rik*.

In the following cases, #CVr- is changed to #CrV- (for all three, cf. II 2.3.2.1):

- *trus* (EVM, EAL, SHG), verbal *trus- / trusit* (EVM, EAL)<sup>171</sup> besides BMC, DTB, EAL, SHG *turs*, verbal *turs- / tursit* "fear";
- truš (DTB) vs. turš (BMC, EAL), which has been borrowed from NP turš "sour";
- in *turpš* "sour", the final consonant cluster is reduced by a metathesis to *trupš*, *trušp* (EAL, GEB, SHG) similar to the one in MPZ *tru(f)š* (MACKENZIE 1986:84) and Prth. *trifš*. <sup>172</sup>

# **Isometric substitution**<sup>173</sup>

There seems to be a principle at work in some examples which reduces a long vowel to a short one with compensatory lengthening of the following consonant:

- $jur(r)\bar{a}b < NP-Ar. j\bar{u}r\bar{a}b$  "stocking";
- $\mu z(z)^{-174}$  "move" vs. NP  $\bar{i}\bar{o}y$ -, Av.  $\nu aoza$ -, unless  $\mu z(z)$  is another formation;
- $\check{c}u\check{s}(\check{s})$  (SHG) for  $\check{c}\bar{u}\check{s}$  (BMC, EVM, FBB, EAL)<sup>175</sup> "kiss, suck";
- nak(k) "grandmother" vs.  $n\bar{a}k\bar{o}$  "uncle" (cf. p. 105f.);
- if  $pu\check{s}(\check{s})\bar{\iota}$ ,  $pi\check{s}(\check{s})\bar{\iota}$  is not to be explained in connection with NP  $pu\check{s}ak$  (cf. p. 198), it might represent an isometrically metathesised variant of  $p\bar{\iota}\bar{s}\bar{\iota}$ ,  $p\bar{u}\check{s}\bar{\iota}$  and thus belong here (note that a gemination of the  $\check{s}$  in  $p\bar{\iota}\bar{s}\check{s}\bar{\iota}$ ,  $p\bar{u}\check{s}\check{s}\bar{\iota}$  is only attested in SHG where gemination of consonant after  $\bar{\iota}$  and  $\bar{u}$  is regular, cf. p. 242).

<sup>171</sup> For alleged truss-, cf. p. 146.

<sup>172</sup> For further discussion, cf. p. 176, 207.

<sup>173</sup> The term as well as the hint to this phenomenon are from Ilya Yakubovich (personal communication).

Other languages showing something similar include Italian, where there are examples of short vowel + long consonant for earlier long vowel + simple consonant and vice versa (ROHLFS 1949:382f.): It.  $brutto < \text{Lat. } br\bar{u}tus$ , It. dial.  $c\bar{a}ro < carro$ , cf. also (Ilya Yakubovich, personal communication) It. conobbi "I recognised"  $< \text{Lat. } cogn\bar{o}v\bar{\iota}$ , ruppi "I broke"  $< r\bar{u}p\bar{\iota}$ , venni "I came"  $< v\bar{e}n\bar{\iota}$ . For gemination in Balochi in general, cf. II 3.1.1.1.

<sup>174</sup> The past stem is juz(z)it, a secondary formation which cannot directly have brought about the short u of the present stem. For etymological discussion, cf. p. 104.

<sup>175</sup> SHG has  $\check{c}\bar{u}\check{s}\check{s}$ - which results from the regular gemination of consonants after  $\bar{\iota}$  and  $\bar{u}$  in that source.  $\check{c}\bar{u}\check{s}(\check{s})$ - might have been borrowed from NP  $\check{c}\bar{o}\check{s}$ - (ELFENBEIN 1963:29).

<sup>176</sup> If EAL  $nak\bar{o}$  "old, uncle, father-in-law, grandmother" is not a misprint for  $n\bar{a}k\bar{o}$ , it might be a derivative of nak(k) \*"grandparent, elder relative".

The converse process may be seen in

- $t\bar{u}n$  "thirst",  $t\bar{u}nag$ ,  $t\bar{u}n\bar{t}g$  (GEIGER 1981:409) "thirsty" vs. tun(n), tun(n)ag,  $tun(n)\bar{t}g$  etc. (cf. p. 127);
- one might also consider to explain  $b\bar{a}z$  "much, many, very" vs. bazz (GCD, EAL, in other sources baz) "thick, coarse (of paper, cloth etc.)" in a similar way. Both words have been connected to Arm. bazum, OInd.  $bah\hat{u}$  "much, numerous" etc. by HÜBSCHMANN 1890:560 and others. The alternative hypothesis would be to interpret  $b\bar{a}z$  as Bal. rendering of NP-Ar.  $ba^cz(\bar{\imath})$  "several, some" (thus e.g. Rossi 1979:174, FARRELL 2003:181); Bal.  $b\bar{a}z$  is indeed written بعض in BMC (besides بالمورد) and cited as  $ba^cz$  in GCD. However, it seems difficult to see the "completely coinciding" semantics of Bal.  $b\bar{a}z$  and baz(z) with NP  $ba^cz$  "several" and Ur.  $b\bar{a}z$  "back, again" adduced by Rossi 1979:174 in support of this argument, and the etymology advocated by Hübschmann etc. might seem the better assumption; if so, baz "thick" would be the original form of the Bal. word, it might have got its geminate by analogy with the NP loanword bas(s) "enough" (cf. p. 100); by application of the reverse of  $\bar{V}C > \bar{V}CC$ ,  $b\bar{a}z$  might have developed, written or maybe even pronounced by some in accordance with a popular etymology linking it to NP-Ar.  $ba^cz$ .

The following instances of compensatory strengthening of vowels (II 3.1.3.2) might be interpreted in the context of isometric substitution as well.

<sup>177</sup> For more Ir. cognates and further discussion, cf. BAILEY 1979:270b, EWAia II:221.

<sup>178</sup> For the treatment of Ar. <sup>c</sup>, cf. p. 63.

<sup>179</sup> For NP bāz "again, open" (thence the Ur. word), cf. p. 139.

<sup>180</sup> Maybe ELFENBEIN 1985:230 implies a similar thought. ELFENBEIN 1990/II:25, on the other hand, adduces Wakhi  $b\bar{a}j$  to account for the long vowel of Bal.  $b\bar{a}z$ . Elfenbein's idea that Wakhi shows a long vowel where one might expect a short one derives from BAILEY 1979:270b who is likely to have read it in PACHALINA 1975:21, 184ff. (Pavel Lurje, personal communication). Wakhi  $\bar{a}$  is likely to be an allophone of /a/, though, so that the word is in fact /baj/, and Wakhi /a/ represents the regular outcome of OIr. a (STEBLIN-KAMENSKIJ 1999:40ff., 47).

## 3.1.3.2 Compensatory strengthening of vowels

There are some cases of a consonant being lost and the preceding vowel changed in quality and quantity.<sup>181</sup>

## **CBal.** $i \rightarrow \bar{e}^{182}$

Regardless of whether  $g\bar{e}n\bar{i}c$  "coriander" was borrowed (NP  $gi\check{s}n\bar{i}z$ ) or not (for a detailed discussion, cf. p. 127), it shows an irregular "strengthening" of the vowel (GEIGER 1891:411) not usually connected to the regular Bal. change of  $\check{s}N > N(N)$ , e.g. tun(n) "thirst" < \*turšn,  $\check{c}am(m)$  "eye" vs. NP  $\check{c}a\check{s}m$  (cf. p. 126).

FBB  $f\bar{a}t\bar{e}\bar{a}$  (ABG  $f\bar{a}tih\bar{a}$ , SHG  $p\bar{a}tiy\bar{a}^{183}$  < NP-Ar.  $f\bar{a}tih\bar{a}$ ) "memorial prayer" shows the phenomon even in a case where a hiatus results.

### **CBal.** $u \rightarrow \bar{o}$ :

The following words exhibit a variation uh,  $\bar{o}$ :

- puhl (ABG, SHG), pōl (BMC, SHG) "bridge" (MP puhl, NP pul, cf. p. 121, 131, 147);
- suhb (EAL, SHG), suhβ (DTB), sōb (BMC, FBB) "morning" (from NP-Ar. subḥ, cf. p. 265);
- *suhr* (GEB, DTB, ABG, SHG), *sōr* (BMC, EVM, FBB, EAL) "red, golden" (NP *surx*, cf. p. 119);
- kuhn (EAL, SHG), kōn (BMC) "old" (NP kuhan, kuhna, cf. p. 120).

The variants  $s\bar{o}hb$  (EAL) "morning",  $s\bar{o}hr$  (BMC, EAL) "red" and  $k\bar{o}hn$  (BMC, EAL) "old" show a contamination of the respective forms mentioned above, presumably due to an underlying assumption that the absence of h in the forms with  $\bar{o}$  is due to a dialectal phenomenon (for which cf. 2.4.1.2), parallel to the variants with  $-\bar{a}h$ - found in BMC besides the dialectal variants ah,  $\bar{a}$  (cf. II 3.2.3.3).

<sup>181</sup> For  $ah > \bar{a}$ , cf. p. 252f. In some cases, ah, ih, uh likewise give  $\bar{a}$ ,  $\bar{\iota}$ ,  $\bar{u}$ , respectively, in NP (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:268, HORN 1901:23, 26, 31f.).

<sup>182</sup> GEIGER's examples (1891:408) of  $i > \bar{i}$  by compensatory lengthening do not hold (cf. p. 137, 178).

<sup>183</sup> For lengthening of final -a, cf. p. 190f.

<sup>184</sup> EAL even has  $s\bar{o}bh$  which, if existing, is still another result from contamination, or shows an influence of the CNP pronunciation sobh.

The hypercorrect reversal is seen in

- puhn (SPOONER 1967:58)<sup>185</sup> for pōn (MORGENSTIERNE 1948:290, EAL, SHG) "rotten (of dates and other fruit)";<sup>186</sup>
- duhmī (ABG) for dōmī (BMC, FBB), dumī (SOKOLOV 1956:74) "second";
- *muhbat* (SHG) for *mōbatt* (BMC) besides more common *mahabat*, *mābatt* "love" (from NP-Ar. *mahabbat*, cf. p. 286).

The variant  $Bamfuhl^{187}$  noted by SPOONER 1967:58 for  $Bamp\bar{u}r$  (town in Iranian Balochistan) might be explained similarly, it might involve a popular etymology with puhl "bridge", motivated by the presence of a river in the Bampur valley. <sup>188</sup>

The fact that the variants with  $-\bar{o}$ - are not attested in the older sources points to a late stage of this reduction and might suggest that at the time the reduction took place, short i/u were nearer in quality to  $\bar{e}/\bar{o}$  than to  $\bar{\iota}/\bar{u}$ , i.e. to a rather open pronunciation of i/u. In the unlikely, but possible case of all mentioned words being borrowed from Persian, the same argument would apply to the pronunciation of Persian at that time.

Instead of  $uh > \bar{o}$ , some older sources show  $uh > \bar{u}$ :  $s\bar{u}r$  "red",  $t\bar{u}m$  "seed" (GEIGER 1891:409, from diverse sources). This would align with  $t\bar{u}n$  "thirst" (cf. p. 210) and point to a more closed pronunciation of /u/ in those times.

It is possible that the alleged examples of OIr. xm > m are to be placed here (cf. p. 115f.).

<sup>185</sup> The words cited from SPOONER 1967 are adapted to the transcription used here (cf. p. 261).

<sup>186</sup> MORGENSTIERNE 1948:290 derives this word from a root \*pū "decay" which is also seen in (h)apūtag (a certain plant, cf. p. 140) and a couple of other words. As this root (PIE \*peuH no. 2 in LIV) "barely shows an ablaut" (LIV p. 480f.), pōn may either be explained as a case of lowering (cf. p. 201f.) or as inferred from a verb (not attested) with a present stem \*pōn- which might have its vowel from the application of a secondary ablaut present stem ō vs. past stem \*-u- (cf. III 4.1).

<sup>187</sup> According to SPOONER 1967:58, *Banfuhl* is found in Persian texts only, but he assumes it to be a Bal. word. Cf. also p. 262.

The f may either be due to Ar. influence (Pavel Lurje, personal communication) or to a hypercorrect introduction of a "Persian" f which is as a rule not used in Balochi (cf. p. 64), but used by Baloch when speaking other languages. The converse assumption of Bamfuhl being the original variant and  $Bamp\bar{u}r$  more recent seems less likely since  ${}^{\circ}p\bar{u}r$  is maybe not common enough in the region to be introduced here.

#### 3.1.3.3 Nasalisation of vowels

The degree to which vowel + n changes to a nasalised vowel differs considerably depending on the dialects, nasal vowels being most frequent in Eastern and Southern dialects and less frequent, in some dialects even nonexistent (Afghan and Turkmen Raxšānī), in the Western ones (for further details, cf. II 3.2). The phenomenon is not limited to one of the major dialect groups, however. As will be seen, nasalisation – at least the processes not limited to a certain dialect – may be regarded as a conditioned phenomenon (cf. Jahani 1989:81), and as operating on a subphonemic level.

# Nasalisation of long vowels

In all those Bal. dialects which do show nasalisation of vowels, there is a tendency to nasalise a long vowel + nasal when a consonant follows. With a following vowel, the nasalisation does not always take place.<sup>189</sup>

In the dialect described by BARKER/MENGAL 1969 (Western dialect: Pakistani Raxšānī, i.e. one of the dialects with a low degree of nasalisation), nasal vowels do not occur in word-initial position.  $\tilde{t}$  and  $\tilde{u}$  are particularly rare in this dialect, mainly used in poetry for metrical reasons and optional in all cases (BARKER/MENGAL (1969/I:xxxiv, xxxix).

Examples of word-final nasals are: 190

- obl.pl. ending  $-\bar{a}n$  /\_V vs.  $-\bar{a}$  /\_C, e.g. in (BARKER/MENGAL 1969/I:13):  $kit\bar{a}b$   $gis-\bar{a}n$  ant "the books are in the houses", 191 sumai  $gis-\bar{a}$   $kit\bar{a}b$  ant "in your (pl.) houses are books";
- adj. attributive ending  $-\bar{e}n$  /\_V vs.  $-\bar{e}$  /\_C, e.g. in (BARKER/MENGAL 1969/I:43):  $mazan-\bar{e}n$  asp "big horse" vs.  $sy\bar{a}h-\bar{e}$  buz "black goat";

<sup>189</sup> Note that the converse distribution has been assumed for classical Latin (Leumann 1977:225f.) with -Vm pronounced as such when a consonant follows and  $-\tilde{V}$  in front of a vowel.

<sup>190</sup> The transcription of Barker/Mengal's examples is adjusted to the system used here. In the present work, the nasalisation product of a short vowel + n is written as e.g.  $\tilde{a}$ , that of a long vowel + n as  $\tilde{a}$  etc., in order to make the process transparent and since there seem to be dialects with a difference in pronunciation between long and short nasal vowels (cf. p. 263). In other dialects (cf. p. 245),  $\tilde{a}$  and  $\tilde{a}$ , for instance, seem to fall together in pronunciation, so that e.g. FARRELL 1990 has <mã> for /man/ "I" and <-ã> for /-ān/ (obl.pl. ending) etc. DAMES 1891:15 (cf. p. 238) writes man "I", main "my",  $ma\bar{n}$  "our", transliterating the Urdu-style orthography; the implications for the actual pronunciation are not entirely clear.

<sup>191</sup> Barker/Mengal's translation "The books are in the house" must be an error.

- 1sg.  $-\bar{i}n$  besides  $-\bar{i}$  (optional colloquial variant, BARKER/MENGAL 1969/I:xxxiv);
- prep.  $g\bar{o}n$  /\_V vs.  $g\bar{o}$  /\_C "with" (BARKER/MENGAL 1969/I:xxxvi, cf. p. 181);
- adv. annūn /\_V vs. annū /\_C "right now" (BARKER/MENGAL 1969/I:xxxix). 192

## Examples of word-internal nasal vowels:

- pāzda "fifteen" vs. (NAWATA 1981:27) pānzda;
- $s\bar{e}zda$  "thirteen" (nasal analogical)<sup>193</sup> vs. (NAWATA 1981:27)  $s\bar{e}zda$ ;
- $s\bar{i}g\bar{a}r$ ,  $s\bar{i}ng\bar{a}r^{194}$  "cosmetics";
- $n\bar{o}zda$  "nineteen" (nasal analogical) vs. (NAWATA 1981:27)  $n\bar{o}zda$ ;
- $b\bar{u}duk$ ,  $b\bar{u}nduk^{195}$  "pile of bedding and carpets".

In other dialects, e.g. Karachi Balochi, nasalised vowels occur in every context, e.g.

- obl.pl.  $-\tilde{a}$  (FARRELL 1990:33);
- *mazan-ē amb* "big mango" (FARRELL 1990:18); 196
- $\tilde{o}$  "I am" (FARRELL 2003:174). 197

Word-internal nasalisation is common, but not systematic:

•  $gur\tilde{a}d$  "ram" (FARRELL 2003:174, cf. p. 100);  $\bar{a}d\tilde{e}k^{198}$  "mirror";  $p\tilde{i}z^{199}$  "heel";  $p\tilde{o}z^{200}$  "nose";  $\tilde{s}\tilde{i}z$ ,  $\tilde{s}\tilde{u}z^{201}$  "green" (FARRELL 1990:11, 82, 84),

<sup>192</sup> For variants and the etymology, cf. p. 202.

<sup>193</sup> According to HÜBSCHMANN 1895:78, there is also a NP variant  $s\bar{\imath}nzdah$  (the common variant is  $s\bar{e}zdah$ ) which by reason of its vowel does not match the Bal. variants, however. Other numerals also show secondary nasals in some sources, e.g.  $y\bar{a}nzda$  "eleven",  $dw\bar{a}nzda$  "twelve" (NAWATA 1981:27). For °da(h), cf. p. 191, for secondary nasals, see below.

<sup>194</sup>  $s\bar{\imath}ng\bar{a}r$  is an Ind. loanword, cf. Ur. and Pnj.  $s\bar{\imath}g\bar{a}r$ - $n\bar{a}$  "to adorn", TURNER 1966:730 (Georg Buddruss, personal communication).

<sup>195</sup>  $b\bar{u}nduk$  is obviously a derivation of  $b\bar{u}nd$  (EAL;  $b\bar{u}nd$  is a misprint) "old quilt, bedding" with change of d > d (cf. II 3.1.1.4).

<sup>196</sup> FARRELL's *mazanēn-ē* "that big one" (1990:18) shows that the use of the nasal vowel before vowel must be a recent phenomenon of analogy even in this dialect.

<sup>197</sup> FARRELL 1990 (e.g. p. 13) has  $\tilde{a}$  in the same function (also the ending for the 1sg.pres. in this dialect).

I have not found an example of word-final  $-\tilde{u}$  in Farrell's material (this dialect often changes  $\bar{u}$  to  $\bar{\iota}$ , moreover).

<sup>198</sup> For the etymology, cf.p. 79, for variants, cf. p. 199.

<sup>199</sup> This is a variant of  $p\bar{u}nz$ , for which cf. also p. 127, 197.

<sup>200</sup> Thus also SHG. See also below.

<sup>201</sup> For the etymology, cf. p. 113f., for further discussion, cf. p. 198.

• vs. the variants gurānd, šīnz (FARRELL 1990:82, 86).

Even in this dialect, most cases of word-final  $-\bar{V}n$  are pronounced as such and not nasalised (there are some exceptions like  $g\tilde{o}$  "with"):<sup>202</sup>

•  $d\bar{a}n^{203}$  "grain";  $\bar{o}n^{204}$  "blood" (FARRELL 2003:174);  $\check{\jmath}\bar{u}n$  "June" (FARRELL 1990:89).

### **Nasalisation of short vowels**

In a number of dialects, nasalisation of short vowels occurs as well. In some dialects, these are limited to word-final nasals in pronouns and  $-\tilde{V}n$  and  $-Vnt > -\tilde{V}$  occurring in verbal endings (cf. II 3.2.1.3, 3.2.4.3); word-internal nasalisation of short vowels seems to be a feature of Southern dialects (cf. II 3.2.3.3).<sup>205</sup>

# Secondary nasalised vowels and secondary nasals<sup>206</sup>

Those dialects which are in a particularly close contact with Ind. languages (i.e. some SBal. and EBal. dialects) frequently show secondarily nasalised vowels (FARRELL 2003:175) and, probably as a consequence to the emergence of these, unetymological nasals. The phenomenon also occurs in some words from WBal. dialects.<sup>207</sup>

<sup>202</sup> Cf. SHG which has annū, but gōn.

<sup>203</sup> dan might, but need not, have been borrowed from NP (GEIGER 1891:444).

<sup>204</sup> This is a *h*-less variant (for loss of *h*, cf. p. 241) of *hōn*. The word is most likely to have been borrowed from NP *xūn*, MP *xōn* (GEIGER 1891:444). For discussion of this word and related Ir. forms (going back to OIr. \*uahu-na/i-), cf. SCHWARTZ 1982. Prth. <gwxn> (read *goxan*, *guxn* by DURKIN-MEISTERERNST 2004:168a) seems to have been borrowed from proto-Balochi or a similar dialect since Parthian otherwise preserves \*u- (cf. II 2.1.3.3.1).

The variant  $h\bar{u}n$  reported by GEB and EAL (ABG has  $h\bar{u}n\bar{t}$  "murderer, deadly" and writes it to indicate the author's assumption that it is a NP loanword, cf. p. 65) need not be a case of raising (cf. p. 200), but may have been borrowed from NP  $x\bar{u}n$ .

<sup>205</sup> The statement by ELFENBEIN (1966:5) "In Pakistan, all dialects tend to drop final nasals and nasalise the preceding vowel. Particularly common is [adj.]  $-en > -\tilde{e}$  and, with dropping of final -t, -int > [3sg.]  $-\tilde{t}$ " is at variance at least with the data from BARKER/MENGAL 1969 (for which cf. p. 254).

<sup>206</sup> For assimilation and loss of nasals, cf. p. 180f.

<sup>207</sup> Not really belonging here, but rather due to an analogical process is the past stem *gičint* vs. *gičit* (both in EAL, GEB) from pres. *gičin-* "collect" (cf. p. 85).  $t\bar{a}n$  (EAL),  $t\bar{a}$  (BMC, SHG, FARRELL 2003:175) "until" besides  $t\bar{a}$  is probably not an example for secondary nasal, but rather (EAL 148)  $t\bar{a} + \bar{a}n$  (literally: "until that"), cf. other "compounds" with  $t\bar{a}$ :  $t\bar{a}nki$  "so long as" (< NP  $t\bar{a}$   $\bar{a}n$  ki), BMC  $t\bar{a}ba$  "until" (< NP  $t\bar{a}$  ba). There are parallel variants

Quite a number of words show secondary n,  $^{208}$  e.g.

- $ag\bar{a}n$  (EAL: Coastal, Kēčī),  $ag\tilde{a}$  (SHG, FARRELL 2003:175)<sup>209</sup> vs. aga (BMC, EAL: Raxšānī, SHG), agar (FBB, EVM, EAL, SHG) "if" (NP agar);
- *cainaš*<sup>210</sup> (ABG) vs. *aiš* (EAL) "luxury" (NP-Ar. *caiš*);
- $b\bar{a}nz$ ,  $b\bar{a}z$  (BMC, GEB, EAL, SHG) vs.  $b\bar{a}z^{211}$  "falcon" (NP  $b\bar{a}z$ ); 212
- pōnz, pōz (GEB, GCD, FBB, BMC, EAL, SHG) vs. pōz (GEB, EVM, EAL, SHG, NAWATA 1981:34) "nose" (cf. p. 203);
- $p\bar{o}n\bar{s}\bar{\iota}$  (SHG, EAL: Coastal),  $p\tilde{o}\bar{s}\bar{\iota}$  (FARRELL 2003:175) vs.  $p\bar{o}\bar{s}\bar{\iota}$  (BMC, FBB, EAL) "the day after tomorrow";<sup>213</sup>
- tanš (EAL), tãš (SHG) vs. taš (EAL, SHG), t<sup>h</sup>aš (GCD, DTB) "adze" (NP taš "axe", cf. p. 92);
- $k\bar{o}\check{c}ag$  vs.  $k\bar{o}\check{c}ag$  (both SHG and FARRELL 2003:175)<sup>214</sup> "to dig";
- gant pāč- besides gat pāč- (both FARRELL 2003:175) "bite".

Due to the common noun ending -nk, which has been regarded as a suffix in its own right by some authors (cf. p. 166), -n- has been introduced in some nouns in -Vk:

with d-:  $d\bar{a}n$  (EAL),  $d\tilde{a}$  (BMC, SHG, FARRELL 2003:175),  $d\bar{a}nki$  etc.

MPM  $d\bar{a}$ , NP/MP  $t\bar{a}$  have been derived from PIr. \*atā (instr. of \*at-), \*taHat (n. of \*taH-ant-), both "so much", respectively (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1997:319f.).  $d\bar{a}n$  and  $t\bar{a}(-)$  would thus be Pers. loanwords. EVM  $\bar{a}zm\bar{u}ndag$  is a misprint for  $\bar{a}zm\bar{u}dag$  (thus in ZARUBIN 1949:144, NP  $\bar{a}zm\bar{u}dag$ ) "try, attempt".

<sup>208</sup> The occurrence of secondary nasals is noted for loanwords by FARRELL 2003:175. The phenomenon does not seem to be limited to loanwords, though. For secondary nasals in numbers, cf. p. 214.

<sup>209</sup> For the substitution of  $-\bar{a}$  for -a, cf. p. 190f. ABG has  $\bar{a}g\bar{a}$  (sic), cf. p. 190. agat given by EAL (Coastal) is probably influenced by angat "yet" (for which cf. p. 81, 186).

<sup>210</sup> For the introduction of secondary vowels in this dialect, cf. II 3.1.2.4.

<sup>211</sup> According to GEIGER 1891:446, bāz occurs once in a Bal. manuscript in the British Museum.

<sup>212</sup> GEIGER 1891:446 and HORN 1893:37 link the word to OInd.  $v\acute{a}ja$ - "race, triumph, victory". Arm.  $baz\bar{e}$  does not tell us anything in this case since it might be a very recent loanword. It has also been assumed that the word is of Semitic origin, cf. Ar.  $b\bar{a}z\bar{\imath}$  (GREPPIN 1977:7). Other words for "falcon" are  $\check{s}\bar{e}nak$  (cf. p. 129) and  $\check{s}\bar{a}h\bar{\imath}n$  (borrowed from NP, a derivative of  $\check{s}\bar{a}h$  "king", GREPPIN 1977:9).

<sup>213</sup> For the etymology, cf. p. 139.

<sup>214</sup> As the word seems to be found in the Karachi area mainly, a borrowing from Ur.  $k\bar{o}\check{c}$ - $n\bar{a}$  "rip, tear, pierce" appears likely. On the other hand, with regard to Bashkardi  $k\bar{o}\check{c}$ - "dig" (GERSHEVITCH 1970a:306), Bal.  $k\bar{o}\check{c}$ - might also be an inherited word; conversely, Sogd. ptkwc- "pierce" cited by Gershevitch is probably not connected (Nicholas Sims-Williams, personal communication). SHG notes  $gwa\check{j}ag$  and  $k\bar{o}dag$  as equivalents;  $k\bar{o}(n)d$  "hole" is also found in Brahui, which according to ROSSI 1979:70, may have been borrowed from Balochi into Brahui or vice-versa.  $k\bar{o}(n)d$  and  $k\bar{o}nd$ -are probably Ind. loanwords, though (ELFENBEIN 1990/II:81), cf. Ur.  $k^h\bar{u}nd$ - $n\bar{a}$  "dig".

- *bānklēnk*<sup>215</sup>, *bāklēk* (SHG, FARRELL 2003:175), *bāklīk* "broad bean" vs. *bāklīk*, *bāklēt* (sic; FARRELL 2003:175), NP-Ar. *bāqilā*';
- *nazīnk* (FARRELL 1995:238) "near" vs. *naz(z)īk* (cf. p. 88);
- rōtīnk (EAL, MORGENSTIERNE 1932:49) besides usual rōt "intestines" (NP rūda, MP rōdīg).<sup>216</sup>

The following items show secondary nasalisation of the vowel:

- bāzul vs. bāzul "wing, baby's arm" (cf. p. 160);
- jāsūs (ABG) vs. jāsūs (DTB) "spy" (NP-Ar.);<sup>217</sup>
- balkē (SHG), balkī (FARRELL 2003:175) vs. balki (BMC, EVM, EAL) "maybe" (NP-Ar.);<sup>218</sup>
- $s\tilde{o}\check{c}ag$  (FARRELL 2003:175) vs.  $s\bar{o}\check{c}ag$  (FBB) "to think" (Ur.  $s\bar{o}\check{c}-n\bar{a}$ );<sup>219</sup>
- $p\bar{u}\bar{s}\bar{t}$  (GEB) vs.  $p\bar{u}\bar{s}(\bar{s})\bar{t}$  (SHG, GEB) "cat";<sup>220</sup>
- čaūk (ABG) vs. čauk (SHG) "crossroads" (Urdu);
- *šaū̃q* (ABG), *šō̃k* (FARRELL 2003:175) vs. *šauk* (SHG), *šōk* (FARRELL 2003:175) "desire" (NP-Ar. *šauq*).

The same happens to Engl. loanwords (all from FARRELL 2003:175):

- $\check{cap}$  "chop (of meat)";  $\check{caklet}$ ,  $\check{caklet}$  "chocolate, sweets";  $k\bar{o}p$ - $s\bar{a}sar$  "cup and saucer";
- *tēt*, *tēt* "tight, well, good"; *sēkal*, *sāikal* "bicycle";
- ramp "rough".

<sup>215</sup> *bānklēnk* is not directly attested: FBB has *bānklēk* (1990:51), *bāklēnk* (1990:83), EAL *bānkalēnk*, *bānklīnk* and *bāklik*. According to GEIGER 1891:446, *bāklīk* occurs once in a Bal. manuscript in the British Museum, *bāklīk* in MARSTON 1877.

<sup>216</sup> Further cognates include Av. *uruðuuar*- and some words from non-Ir. languages (IEW 873f.), for Psht. *lərai*, cf. MORGENSTIERNE 1932:49, 2003:45.

<sup>217</sup> The short vowel of EAL's  $jas\bar{\imath}s$  might be a misprint or else due to the metre of the text it is found in;  $jas\bar{\imath}s$  obviously shows the reversal of the sound-change  $\bar{\imath}s$  (cf. p. 196f.); the existence of this form in other sources than EAL remains unclear.

<sup>218</sup> Here, the presence of the nasal might be motivated by the adj. suffix  $-\bar{e}n$ ; for  $\bar{e} > \bar{\iota}$  and vice-versa, cf. II 3.1.2.3.2.

<sup>219</sup> This verb is not attested in other sources; the past stem is  $s\bar{o}\check{c}it$  (FBB). EAL has  $s\bar{o}\check{c}$  "worry, reflection, thought" and considers it to have been borrowed from Sindhi; it could also be from Ur.  $s\bar{o}\check{c}$  (same meaning).

<sup>220</sup> For additional variants and the etymology, cf. p. 198, 209.

## 3.1.3.4 aw, uw and (u)wa

aw > (u)w:

Postconsonantal aw is assimilated to (u)w. As Cuw is difficult to distinguish from Cw, notations without u need not reflect an elision.<sup>221</sup>

- *juwān* (EVM, Buddruss 1988:75), *jwān* (BMC, EVM, SHG, NAWATA 1981:45) "young, good" (cf. p. 104);<sup>222</sup>
- EVM *zuwān* "tongue" is probably a secondary development from EBal. *zawān* (cf. p. 91, 228);<sup>223</sup>
- ABG *nā-twām* "incomplete" (cf. also p. 232f.) vs. SWBal. *nā-tamām* (NP, partially NP-Ar.) via \*°tawām > \*°tuwām;
- nuwāsag (EVM), nwāsag (RZEHAK 1991:185) vs. nawāsag (other sources) "grandchild" (cf. p. 89, 234, 276).

A possible counterexample would be *raw*- "go" (for other stem variants, cf. p. 128), but here the morpheme boundary might have prevented the assimilation.

The reverse change may be seen in

- *šawān(k)* vs. *šwānag* "shepherd" (cf. p. 225);
- EBal. *šawā* "you (pl.)" vs. *šumā* (cf. p. 126, 232f.).

These may also be explained as showing uw > w with subsequent introduction of an anaptyctical vowel (cf. II 3.1.2.4).

(u)wa > u (GEIGER 1891:409):

There is an optional change of postconsonantal -ua- > -u-. It especially occurs with gwa- (< OIr. ua-, cf. II 2.1.3.3.1). Most words with gwa- have variants in gu- (cf. GEIGER 1891:409):

<sup>221</sup> Cf. also the (probably only apparent) loss of u,  $\bar{o}$  in EAL  $\check{\jmath}(\bar{o})wak$  "small stream" (from  $\check{\jmath}\bar{o}$  "river", cf. p. 104, 184),  $gw\bar{a}lag$  "bag" (loanword, cf. NP  $guw\bar{a}l$ , cf. p. 279),  $gw\bar{a}h\bar{\iota}$  "news" (borrowed from NP  $guw\bar{a}h\bar{\iota}$  which derives from MP  $wig\bar{a}h\bar{\iota}h$ , Desmond Durkin-Meisterernst, personal communication).

<sup>222</sup> ABG, FBB jawān "young" has probably been borrowed from NP jawān. EAL has jawān, jwān without distinction in form, but stating that the meaning is "good, nice" in Raxšānī and "young" in Kēčī, Coastal and the Eastern dialects.

<sup>223</sup> Other sources have zubān (cf. p. 91).

- EBal. guf- (DTB) vs. SWBal. gwap- "weave";<sup>224</sup>
- EBal. guz- (DTB, EAL) vs. SWBal. gwaz- "pass";<sup>225</sup>
- guhār (ABG, BMC, EAL) vs. gwahār "sister";<sup>226</sup>
- in the case of guš-/gušt<sup>227</sup> "say", this variant replaces gwaš-; the latter variant is only found in Eastern Balochi (DTB, MAYER 1910 and EAL), and it is not clear whether it is still in use;<sup>228</sup>
- for *gwabz*, *gwamz* "wasp", the variant *gumz* is only found in HITTU RAM 1881 (cf. also p. 234).<sup>229</sup>

It is possible that gu- started out from certain dialects, although synchronically no clear picture of distribution emerges, so this feature does not lend itself to an isogloss for defining dialect boundaries.<sup>230</sup>

The only example of ua > u which does not involve gwa- seems to be

• \*čuant > čunt (NP, MP čand, Prth. čwand) "how much".

It points to a general tendency of Cua - Cu-.

It is quite likely that CwV was pronounced CuwV in Common Balochi, and that Cwa- > Cu- might be described as Cuwa- > Cu- with elision of the second vowel (Ralf-Peter Ritter, personal communication). The reason for kwahn "old" being preserved might then be that the metathesis from \*kahwan (cf. MP kahwan, cf. p. 120) is a rather recent phenomenon.

<sup>224</sup> The past stem *guft* (only in MORGENSTIERNE 1932:45) might be a contamination of the regular form \*uft- and *gwapt* as MORGENSTIERNE 1932:45 assumes, but can be explained more easily as secondary development of \*gwaft (SWBal. *gwapt*), cf. also p. 99.

<sup>225</sup> The EBal. past stem gwast<sup>h</sup>- shows the secondary nature of the change seen in the present stem.

<sup>226</sup> The variant  $gw\bar{a}r$  (EAL, EVM, FBB, NAWATA 1981:37) can be a result from either  $gwah\bar{a}r$  or  $guh\bar{a}r$  since both would give  $gw\bar{a}r$  when the h is lost. As loss of h is a chiefly WBal. phenomenon (cf. p. 248f.),  $gw\bar{a}r$  has to be considered as an interdialectal borrowing in FBB.

<sup>227</sup> According to EAL 58, this variant is particularly common in Raxšānī and Kečī, but it is also the form mentioned in ABG, BMC, DTB, EAL, EVM, FBB, SHG. For the etymology, cf. p. 129, for further discussion, cf. p. 246.

<sup>228</sup> Note that guš- is even mentioned in the EBal. sources GCD and MAYER 1910.

<sup>229</sup> gwand, gwand "small" (cf. p. 182) does not seem to show a variant †gund, †gund, presumably because this would be homonymous with gund, gund "testicles" (cf. p. 296f.).

<sup>230</sup> ELFENBEIN 1990/II:VIIff. has – broadly speaking – gu- for WBal., gwa-, gu- for SBal. and gwa- for EBal. The evidence does not always seem to fit this assumption, cf. II 3.2 for the individual dialects.

### 3.1.3.5 OIr. ard

While OIr. art gives Bal.  $\bar{a}rt$  (cf. p. 189), it seems that OIr. ard (maybe still preserved as such in Common Balochi) gives Bal.  $\bar{a}r / \bar{a}r$ :

- *gwāṛig* "yellow tulip" (BMC), *gwāṛag* "blossom, bud" (SHG) may be derived from \*gwārdag < \*uardaka-,<sup>231</sup> cf. Prth. *wār* "flower", NP *gul*;
- Br. *nard* "groan", if borrowed from Bal. \*nard- (MORGENSTIERNE 1937:348),<sup>232</sup> might preserve the CBal. stage while Bal. *nār* "groan" and Br. *nāl*-, *nār* may show a later stage; they may also have been borrowed from NP *nāl* / *nālīd* "lament" (cf. MPM *nārišn* "cooing");
- *wārdaf* "door-opening" may be derived from \*duar-dap (cf. p. 122) and the preservation of the *rd* explained by the morpheme boundary; alternatively, it may go back to \*duār-° also attested in Old Iranian.

Similar processes operate in Parthian, e.g. *wār* "flower", *sār* "year" (cf. RASTORGUEVA/MOLČANOVA 1981a:162) and Middle Persian (MPM *sār*, MPZ *sāl* "year", RASTORGUEVA/MOLČANOVA 1981:23).

Conversely, Bal. words containing ard seem to have been borrowed throughout, e.g.

• gardin "neck" (cf. p. 195).

Occasionally, rd may be reduced even in loanwords, cf.

• EBal. mar (GRIERSON 1921:394, EAL) "man" (which might also be the origin of GEIGER's 1891:43 mar, cf. p. 137) vs. more common mard, mard (cf. p. 183).

The change of  $ard > \bar{a}r$  might have developed via \*ard, and since r functions as an allophone of d in some contexts (cf. p. 57), \*rd may be liable to interpretation as /r/.

<sup>231</sup> MORGENSTIERNE 1932:46 proposed a derivation of Br. *gwāṛix* "yellow lily" from \*uardika-(borrowed from Balochi, the Bal. word itself was not known to him yet). With regard to the palatalisation processes discussed in II 3.1.2.3.1 and to the fact that a suffix -ig is not found otherwise while -ag is extremely common (cf. II 2.4.4.1), it seems more probable that *gwāṛag* is the primary form and *gwārig* the palatalised variant.

<sup>232</sup> ELFENBEIN 1990/II:108, referring to TURNER 1966:401, presumes that Br. *nard*- has been borrowed from an Ind. language. The Ind. words cited by Turner (Hindi *năd*- etc.) do not seem to fit, however.

## 3.2 Dialect-specific changes

As already stated, the Balochi language comes in a number of considerably differing dialects (cf. I 1.2.2, 3.1), the degree of mutual intelligibility being judged differently (cf. p. 42). The most obvious differences on the phonological and phonetic level are those between the Eastern (for other terms, cf. p. 41) vs. non-Eastern dialects; these have been noticed and described right from the beginning of Balochi linguistics. Attempts to describe further dialects and to define their features are few and comparatively recent. Most contributions in this field are by Josef Elfenbein: Elfenbein 1989 and 1989a contain a description of the geographical distribution of dialects, Elfenbein 1966<sup>233</sup> and 1990/II:VII-XVIII give isoglosses for a number of dialects, the latter intended to "correct and update" the former.<sup>234</sup> A comparative study of the dialects is rendered difficult by the fact that reliable data from the majority of dialects are lacking (cf. I 1.4).

In the following pages data are presented to show how Common Balochi (for this concept, cf. I 1.3) might have developed to the individual dialects / dialect groups, i.e. to present that part of Balochi historical phonology which is supposed to be post-Common Balochi and liable to attribution to a specific dialect / dialect group. These developments will be presented and discussed together with the dialect isoglosses suggested in other works.

For these purposes, the dialect picture as presented by Jahani and others (cf. p. 41) is used, i.e. a division of Balochi into the main dialect groups Eastern, Southern and Western Balochi. For practical purposes, the Bal. dialects spoken in Iran are treated separately (II 3.2.4). A new classification of Balochi dialects is not aimed at here. The purpose is rather to assemble and categorise the information as given by others, complemented by my own observations. It is to be hoped that the findings made below will contribute to a better understanding of the dialect picture of Balochi.

<sup>233</sup> This work is deemed as being "in need of geographical corrections, and partly out of date" by the author himself (Elfenbein 1989a:361).

<sup>234</sup> It will be seen that not all assignments of features to certain dialects as stated by Elfenbein can be confirmed. Notes of the form "EAL [i.e. ELFENBEIN 1990/II]: Eastern [Balochi]" are meant as quotes and do not imply an agreement of the present author that the characteristic or word in question is only found in or typical for Eastern Balochi.

## 3.2.1 Eastern dialects (EBal.)

The Eastern dialects were the first to be established as a separate group by different scholars, 235 termed "Northern Balochi" in older sources and "Eastern Hill Balochi" by ELFENBEIN (e.g. 1990/II:XV). It is fortunate that sources from the 19th century are available for these dialects, but less fortunate that sources for later times are scarce (cf. also I 1.4). Several works among the sources used by Geiger treat Eastern Balochi, viz. LEECH 1838, GLADSTONE 1874, HITTU RAM 1881, DAMES 1881 (much of which reappears in DTB) and LEWIS 1885. More recent EBal. data are found in ABG and EAL: although AHMAD (1985:v) claims that ABG is based on Raxšānī material, a considerable number of the words cited in fact exhibit characteristics which have been shown to be being features of Eastern Balochi, so that to a certain degree, ABG is a source for Eastern Balochi. EAL also includes EBal. material, which is, however, predominantly taken from the early sources named above.

It should be kept in mind that most EBal. material comes from publications which differ markedly from modern ones with regard to printing quality, approach, methods and availability of previous studies; a number of lexical items are more or less likely to involve errors on the part of the authors (and/or the publishing houses).

## 3.2.1.1 Consonants

#### 3.2.1.1.1 General features of EBal.

Non-Eastern dialects	Eastern Balochi	
	{#,C}_	V_
p, t, k	aspirated: $p^h$ , $t^h$ , $k^h$	fricatives: $f$ , $\vartheta$ , $x$
b, d, g	(no change: b, d, g)	fricatives: $\beta$ , $\delta$ , $\gamma$
č, j	aspirated: $\check{c}^h$ (no change: $\check{j}$ )	sibilants: š, ž
w	aspirated: w <sup>h</sup>	(no change: w)

<sup>235</sup> Cf. I 3.1.1, 3.1.2. A résumé of the history concerning the study of EBal. isoglosses can be found in Rossi 1979a:163ff.

As has been remarked above (I 3.1.1), the most noticeable difference between Eastern Balochi and the other dialects is the change of all postvocalic stops to fricatives and the parallel change of  $\check{c}$ ,  $\check{j}$  to  $\check{s}$ ,  $\check{z}$  as well as (according to some authors) the aspiration of word-initial and postconsonantal voiceless stops. Comparing EBal. words like  $k^h \bar{o} f a \check{g}$  "shoulder" to OIr. (Av. kaofa-), one might wonder whether the OIr. fricatives might have been preserved in Eastern Balochi<sup>236</sup> instead of deriving from an intermediary CBal. stage of voiceless stops as generally assumed. Such a hypothesis would involve the following changes and non-changes:

OIr. >	EBal. >	SWBal.
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$f, \vartheta, x / V_{\perp}$ $p^h, t^h, k^h / \#_{\perp}$	p, t, k
b, d, g	β, δ, ġ /V_ b, d, g /#_	b, d, g

This model brings more disadvantages than advantages, though: it is only the OIr. postvocalic fricatives which would have been preserved while in word-initial position, there are stops in Eastern Balochi. Moreover, in all Bal. dialects, the outcome of the OIr. fricatives is the same as that of the stops, i.e. the two series have coalesced also in Eastern Balochi as in the remaining dialects. The development of the voiceless stops and fricatives is also parallel to that of the voiced stops. As these change to fricatives in the same context where voiceless fricatives are found, it seems much more likely that the OIr. fricatives changed to stops first, and that all stops underwent a lenition in postvocalic position later, resulting in voiceless and voiced fricatives. The model which has generally been assumed is thus to be preferred:

OIr. >	CBal. (& SWBal.) >	EBal.
$f, \vartheta, x$	p, t, k	$p^h$ , $t^h$ , $k^h$ /#_
p, t, k	p, i, k	f, \(\ddot\), \(x \/ \mathbb{V}_{\top}
b, d, g	b, d, g	b, d, g /#_ β, δ, ġ /V_

<sup>236</sup> This assumption seems to be made by MošKALO 1991:29. For further discussion, cf. IV.

a) Aspiration: CBal. T,  $\check{c}$ , w > EBal. T<sup>h</sup>,  $\check{c}^h$ ,  $w^h$  /{#, C}\_ (GEIGER 1891:404):<sup>237</sup>

It has been stated by numerous authors (GEIGER 1889:75 was one of the first, cf. also GRIERSON 1921:337) that the aspiration of word-initial and postconsonantal voiceless stops and of  $\check{c}$  (and, in some sources, also of w) is a typical feature of Eastern Balochi. Others have remarked, however, that aspiration is also found in other Bal. dialects, e.g. in Karachi Balochi (cf. p. 242) and some WBal. dialects (cf. p. 251). MORGENSTIERNE 1932a:8 (similarly in 1948:255): "a slight aspiration seems, however, to be existing to some extent in these [the non-Eastern dialects], too". 238 It is thus questionable whether aspiration is a useful isogloss.

Aspiration may be indicated in writing by adding the letter • to the consonant, cf. the examples given below. Note that in word-final position, some sources (e.g. DTB) use the form • , others (e.g. ABG) have (as would be the case in Urdu etc.) • However, there seems to be no source where aspiration is marked absolutely consistently. Some examples for aspirated stops from DTB:<sup>239</sup>

# **CBal.** $p > p^h$ (GEIGER 1891:433):<sup>240</sup>

- $p^h a \check{s} a \check{g}$  پهشغ vs. SWBal.  $p a \check{c} a g$  "to cook",  $p^h i \vartheta$  پهشغ vs. p i t "father";
- $ap^h \bar{a}n^{241}$  اپهان vs.  $amp \bar{a}n$  "leather sack".

<sup>237</sup> More precisely, GEIGER's rule (1891:404) is that in Eastern Balochi, aspirated stops in word-initial position in front of vowels and r as well as word-internally in postconsonantal position correspond to SWBal. voiceless stops. Geiger also gives one example for  $t^h r$ - and  $p^h r$ - each  $(t^h r \bar{o} ngal$  "hail",  $p^h r u \bar{s} a g$  "to break"). For discussion of the phonemic status of the aspiration, cf. p. 60f. For changes of postvocalic consonants, cf. p. 226ff. For etymologies of the examples hereafter, cf. the index in V 2.

<sup>238</sup> MORGENSTIERNE 1932a:8 also notes that aspiration (and the change of postvocalic stops to fricatives) in Brahui dialects is likely to be due to the influence of Balochi and is found in those Br. dialects spoken in the neighbourhood of Eastern Balochi.

<sup>239</sup> Note that even in DTB, aspiration is not systematic.

<sup>240</sup> ABG *pahsal* "harvest, season" besides usual *pasl* (NP-Ar. *faṣl*) and *pahqīr* "beggar, ascetic" besides normal *pakīr* (NP-Ar. *faqīr*) are likely to be due to misinterpretation of the Ar. orthography and to be read as /p<sup>h</sup>asal/, /p<sup>h</sup>aqīr/, respectively, they are thus (the only) examples of  $p^h$  in ABG. A comparable case with  $k^h$  is ABG  $kahz\bar{\imath}$  "when" for /k<sup>h</sup>azī/, corresponding to SWBal.  $kad\bar{\imath}$  (cf. p. 79, for d > z, cf. p. 230f.). For anaptyctical vowels, cf. II 3.1.2.4).

<sup>241</sup> Note that the loss of the nasal (cf. p. 180) must be a very recent phenomenon, otherwise one would expect †afān.  $ap^h\bar{a}n$  is Geiger's only example for  $p^h$  in non-initial position.

# **CBal.** $t > t^h$ (GEIGER 1891:428):<sup>242</sup>

- $t^h a \check{s} a \check{g}$  تهشغ vs. SWBal.  $t a \check{c} a g$  "to run",  $t^h a u$  تهشغ vs. t a u "you (sg.)";
- dathān²<sup>243</sup> دتهان vs. dantān "tooth", khasthar²<sup>244</sup> کهستهر (GRIERSON 1921:3) vs. kastir "smaller", sārth²<sup>245</sup> vs. sārt "cold", perf. stems (when after a consonant²<sup>246</sup>) -tha e.g. ārtha وارتهه "brought", murtha مرتهه "died", wārtha وارتهه "eaten", 3pl. -anth, e.g. bīðaġ-anth (for -ð-, see below) بيثغننه (GRIERSON 1921:388) vs. būtagant²<sup>247</sup> "they became" (perf.).

# **CBal.** $k > k^h$ (GEIGER 1891:418):<sup>248</sup>

- $k^h afag$  کهفغ vs. SWBal. kapag "to fall",  $k^h \bar{a}r$  کهار vs.  $k\bar{a}r$  "deed, act";
- $gurk^h$  گر که vs. gurk "wolf", -C + suffixal -k, e.g.  $\check{s}aw\bar{a}nk^h$  شوانکه "shepherd".  $^{249}$

# **CBal.** $\check{c} > \check{c}^h$ (GEIGER 1891:424):<sup>250</sup>

•  $\check{c}^h \bar{o} f a g$  چهو نخ vs. SWBal.  $\check{c} \bar{o} p a g$  "to hit",  $\check{c}^h a m$  چهه vs.  $\check{c} a m (m)$  "eye",  $\check{c}^h i^{251}$  چهه vs.  $\check{c} \bar{e}$  "what".

<sup>242</sup> The sources vary with regard to aspiration of word-initial voiceless stops in front of a consonant, e.g.  $t^h r \bar{o} ngal$  (GLADSTONE 1874, DAMES 1881) "hail" vs. DTB  $tru\check{s}$  "sour" (GEIGER 1891:428). Note that there is no example of  $t^h$  in ABG.

<sup>243</sup> As in the case of  $ap^h\bar{a}n$ , the loss of the nasal must be very recent, as otherwise it would be †da $\vartheta$ ān.

<sup>244</sup> For the comparative suffix, cf. p. 195.

<sup>245</sup> The orthography in DTB سارتهه seems to be an error, perhaps analogically to the perfect stems in  $-t^ha$  (ABG has سارته  $s\bar{a}rat^h$ , for which see below).

<sup>246</sup> For  $\vartheta$  after a consonant, cf. p. 227, for -ft, -xt, cf. p. 229f. In some EBal. sources, there is no simple past, the present perfect assuming also the function of the simple past (cf. KORN, frthc. 1).

<sup>247</sup> For  $\bar{u} > \bar{\iota}$ , cf. p. 196ff., 237.

<sup>248</sup> ABG has some examples of  $k^h$ , too, e.g.  $k^h$  and ag "laughter",  $k^h \bar{a}r$  "deed". The cases of intervocalic  $k^h$  given by GEIGER 1891:418 must be borrowed from SWBal. GEIGER 1891:418 remarks that as far as it can be inferred from the not entirely consistent sources, word-final k after s,  $\check{s}$  is not aspirated.

<sup>249 &</sup>lt;u>šawānk</u> along with <u>šawān</u> (JAHANI 1996:123) and <u>šwānag</u> (cf. p. 218) could be EBal. variants of borrowed NP <u>šabān</u>. It is, however, unlikely that such a word was borrowed from NP precisely by the remote Eastern dialects and then spread from there to the others (<u>šawān</u> and <u>šwānag</u> are attested in non-Eastern dialects). It thus seems better to consider them as borrowings from Kurd. <u>şıvan</u> or some related idiom. For animal terms possibly borrowed from Kurdish, cf. p. 158f.

<sup>250</sup> GEIGER 1891:424 notes that the aspiration of  $\check{c}^h$  is not consistently marked in the sources (i.e. even less so than with the other aspirated consonants). Examples in ABG include  $\check{c}^h am$  "eye",  $\check{c}^h \bar{o} k \bar{e}$  "since" etc., the latter probably somehow reflecting CNP  $\check{c}\bar{u}n$ -ke.

<sup>251</sup> Dames' transcription <chih> is probably a spelling pronunciation to render the orthography, cf. the prep. "from" (otherwise  $\check{c}(i)$ ,  $a\check{c}$  etc.) which is also spelled < $\check{c}$ hih> in DTB. Another EBal. form of the latter is  $a\check{s}$  (also found in DTB), equivalent to SWBal.  $a\check{c}$ , see below.

**CBal.**  $w > w^h$ : 252

Some sources also have  $w^h$  for w in word-initial position (GEIGER 1891:413):

•  $w^h \bar{a}\delta$  وهاذ vs. SWBal.  $w\bar{a}d$  "salt",  $w^h a\check{s}$  وهان vs.  $wa\check{s}(\check{s})$  "good, sweet".

## **b) Fricatives: CBal. K > EBal. X /V**\_ (GEIGER 1891:404):

The second, and much more important, typical feature of Eastern Balochi is the "opening of postvocalic stops" (MORGENSTIERNE 1948:256)<sup>253</sup> to the corresponding fricatives, including  $\check{c}$ ,  $\check{j}$  which yield  $\check{s}$ ,  $\check{z}$ , respectively, thereby merging with Common Balochi  $\check{s}$ ,  $\check{z}$ . Loanwords are treated in the same way.

The fricatives f, x, g are written with the corresponding graphemes from the Ar.-NP alphabet.  $\vartheta$  and  $\delta$  are for the most part written  $\dot{\varphi}$ , respectively. Fig.  $\beta$  is written g and thus not different in writing from g (for discussion of its status, cf. p. 61f.). Examples from DTB:

# **CBal.** -p > -f (GEIGER 1891:433):<sup>256</sup>

- $k^h afag$  کهوفغ vs. SWBal. kapag "to fall",  $\check{c}^h \bar{o}fag$  چهوفغ vs.  $\check{c}\bar{o}pag$  "to hit",  $k^h \bar{o}fag$  vs.  $k\bar{o}fag$  "shoulder";
- $\bar{a}f$   $\tilde{o}$  vs.  $\bar{a}p$  "water".

252 For the status of  $w^h$  within the phonemic system, cf. p. 61f. ABG has  $wah\bar{a}z$  "salt" (for  $\delta > z$ , cf. p. 230f.) and  $n\bar{a}$ - $wah\check{s}$  "angry" which might represent  $w^h\bar{a}z/a$  and  $wah\bar{a}z/a$  and  $wah\bar{a}z/a$  respectively (cf. the note on ABG's examples for  $wah\bar{a}z/a$ ).

MOŠKALO 1991:25 notes that "in a number of cases", EBal. f might be the result of MIr.  $\beta$ , the latter representing the result of OIr. postvocalic p. It is difficult to see, however, how a stage of Middle Iranian in which OIr. postvocalic p and b have coalesced in  $\beta$  could yield EBal. f precisely in those cases where OIr. had p and  $\beta$  in the case of OIr. b.

EBal. words which show w instead of f are likely to show the result of a secondary development (cf. II 3.3.1.6.2).

<sup>253</sup> This formulation of the rule is more economical than that by GEIGER who assumes (1891:404 and in the sections of fricatives) a development of fricatives for intervocalic position and for some cases of word-final postvocalic position.

<sup>254</sup> For implications for the phonemic system, cf. p. 60. For unknown reasons, the change of CBal.  $j/V_{-}$  to EBal. z is not mentioned by MORGENSTIERNE 1948:256.

<sup>255</sup> Other graphemes that have been used include  $\varepsilon$  for  $\vartheta$  and  $\varsigma$  for  $\delta$  (cf. Jahani 1989:142f.).

<sup>256</sup> Examples from ABG are numerous, e.g.  $\bar{a}f$  "water",  $k\bar{o}fag$  (sic, not  $k^h$ -) "shoulder". For -pt- see below.

# **CBal.** $-t > -\vartheta$ (GEIGER 1891:428):<sup>257</sup>

- $wa\vartheta\bar{\iota}$  وثى vs. SWBal.  $wat\bar{\iota}$  "own", perf. suffix (after a vowel) - $\vartheta a$  e.g.  $b\bar{\iota}\vartheta a$  بيثه vs.  $b\bar{\iota}\iota a$  "was, became";
- $p^h i \vartheta$  پیث vs. pit "father",  $\check{c}^h \bar{a} \vartheta$  چهاث vs.  $\check{c} \bar{a} t$  "well, spring",  $gw \bar{a} \vartheta$  پیث vs.  $gw \bar{a} t$  "wind".

# **CBal.** -k > -x (GEIGER 1891:418):<sup>258</sup>

- nāxō ناخو vs. SWBal. nākō "uncle";
- $r\bar{e}x$  ريخ vs.  $r\bar{e}k$  "sand",  $h\bar{i}x$  هيخ vs.  $h\bar{u}k$  "pig";
- suffixal -k is treated in the same way, e.g.  $du\check{z}ux$  دژخ (SWBal.  $da\check{\jmath}uk(k)$ ) $^{260}$  "hedgehog",  $z\bar{a}rix$  زارخ (vs. zahrak) "gall-bladder", $^{261}$  agentive suffix - $\bar{o}x$  (vs. - $\bar{o}k$ ), e.g.  $gu\check{s}-\bar{o}x$  "singer, recitor". The SWBal. dim. suffix -ik(k) appears as - $ik^{(h)}$ , e.g.  $\check{s}anik^h$  شنکهه (sic) "young goat", wasarik وسرک "father-in-law" (cf. p. 208f.).

<sup>257</sup> GRIERSON 1921:394 notes  $\vartheta$  instead of expected  $t^h$  in some past stems in -r found in texts from the Loralai area and supposes that this is an error of the scribes. However, with regard to gurx "wolf" in DTB, it is possible that there is a subdialectal phenomenon involved here. The cases in question are  $\bar{a}r\vartheta$ - (otherwise  $\bar{a}rt^h$ -) from  $\bar{a}r$ - "bring",  $mur\vartheta$ - (vs.  $murt^h$ -) from mir- "die",  $m\bar{a}r\vartheta$ - (vs.  $m\bar{a}rt^h$ -) from mir- "eat" (for r > r, cf. II 3.1.1.4). For the development of  $\vartheta > s$  in some dialects, cf. p. 230f.

<sup>258</sup> Examples from ABG:  $zay\bar{o}$ - $n\bar{a}x$  "pretty" (from  $zay\bar{o}$  "ornament", cf. p. 278, + - $n\bar{a}k$  "characterised by..."),  $\check{s}ar\bar{\iota}x$  "partner, participating" (NP-Ar.  $\check{s}ar\bar{\iota}k$ ),  $w\bar{a}n\bar{o}x$  "reader, student" (from  $w\bar{a}n$ - "read"). Note that DTB also has gurx "wolf". For -xt- see below. GEIGER 1891:418 assumes that in word-final position, x appears after  $\bar{\iota}$  and  $\bar{u}$ ; the examples show, however, that x is the regular EBal. outcome after every vowel in word-final as well as in word-internal position.

<sup>259</sup> It is not clear to me why ELFENBEIN 1990/II:62 denies the existence of EBal.  $h\bar{t}x$ , which is found in DTB, GCD and (misprinted as hix) in MAYER 1910. If Eastern Balochi had (only) the form  $h\bar{t}k$  as claimed by Elfenbein, the word would have been borrowed from or influenced by SBal.  $h\bar{t}k$ .

<sup>260</sup> For DTB dužux, other sources have dajuk(k) (BMC: "other [i.e. non-Raxšānī] dialects"; EAL: Kēčī, Lāšārī; SHG), jaduk(k) (BMC; EAL: Sarawānī, Raxšānī), Morgenstierne 1932:47, 53 in addition enumerates jajuk, dajhuk, dažux, dužix, duršik, duržik from various sources, cf. also p. 164, 169, 204. Cognates include MPZ zūzag, NP žūža, CNP jūje, Av. dužaka- (Benveniste 1931:221f.). In order to account for the Pers. forms, Benveniste assumes a protoform \*jūjaka- (cf. also Br. jajuk), dissimilated to \*dujaka- (a development which may be compared to that in \*dzasta- > dast, cf. p. 292, Nicholas Sims-Williams, personal communication), thence (with a secondary development) the Bal. and Av. forms. However, there seems to be no good reason not to assume Av. dužaka- as the genuine form (Morgenstierne 1932:52f.). If so, SWBal. dajuk is a hypercorrect form. For the Pers. forms and the Br. loanword, cf. the parallel development in Georg. jojoxet- "hell" < Prth. dōžax (Jost Gippert, personal communication; for the Bal. word for "hell", cf. p. 93).

<sup>261</sup> zahrak has been borrowed from NP zahra "gall-bladder" which is derived from NP zahr "poison". Bal. zahr "poison, anger" and  $z\bar{a}r$  "lament" have influenced each other (cf. p. 206), motivated (also) by the WBal. change  $ah > \bar{a}$  (giving  $z\bar{a}r$  in both cases), thus  $z\bar{a}rix$  instead of †zahrix.

# **CBal.** -*b* > -*\beta* (GEIGER 1891:433): $^{262}$

- $bar\bar{a}\beta ar$  براور (cf. also p. 283, 286) "suitable, equal" (NP  $bar\bar{a}bar$ ),  $za\beta\bar{a}n$  نروان "tongue" (NP  $zab\bar{a}n$ ),  $sa\beta a\beta^{263}$  سرو "reason, excuse" (NP-Ar. sabab);
- $ai\beta$  ايو "spot, bolt" (NP-Ar. 'aib "fault");
- if haur هور "rain" is not a loanword (cf. p. 159f.), it belongs here.

## Hypercorrect substitution of b for w may be seen in

- ABG <sup>c</sup>użbā "limb, organ" (NP-Ar. <sup>c</sup>użw "member");<sup>264</sup>
- $n\bar{\imath}bag$  (SHG) "fruit" for the usual form  $n\bar{\imath}wag$  (cf. p. 268).

# **CBal.** $-d > -\delta$ (GEIGER 1891:429):<sup>265</sup>

- $\check{so}\delta ag$  شوذغ vs. SWBal.  $\check{so}dag$  "to wash",  $\check{su}\delta ag$  شدغ vs.  $\check{su}dag$  "hungry",  $ka\delta \tilde{e}^{266}$  vs.  $kad\bar{i}$  "when";
- $w^h \bar{a}\delta$  وهاذ vs.  $w \bar{a}d$  "salt",  $n \bar{o}\delta$  نوذ vs.  $n \bar{o}d$  "rain-cloud".

## **CBal.** $-g > -\dot{g}$ (GEIGER 1891:419):<sup>267</sup>

- niġōšaġ نغوشغ vs. SWBal. nigōšag "to listen", jaġar جغر vs. jagar "liver" (NP loanword);
- $b\bar{o}g$  "yoint", nominal suffix -ag vs. -ag, e.g.  $n\bar{e}mag$  vs.  $n\bar{e}mag$  "butter".

<sup>262</sup> Cf. p. 61f. for further discussion, also on the notation of the sound. Note that sure examples of genuine words are lacking. ABG has e.g. *garīβī* "poverty" (from *garīb*, see below), *qiβlā* "direction of prayer" (otherwise *kibla*, NP-Ar. *qibla*, cf. 190f.).

<sup>263</sup> SHG, EAL and ABG have a variant sawab besides sabab.

<sup>264</sup> A cluster *zw* does occur in Balochi, albeit in heterosyllabic position, in *pāzwār* "footwear" (probably a NP loanword involving NP *pā* "foot", *zabar* "upon" and/or *bār* "load", although a fitting NP word is not found). As *zb* is not more usual than *zw*, there seems to be no phonotactic reason for the substitution.

<sup>265</sup> For the further development of  $\delta > z$  in some dialects, cf. p. 230f.

<sup>266</sup> In  $ka\delta\tilde{e}$ , the suffix  $-\bar{e}n$  of the attributive adjectives seems to have been introduced for some reason.

<sup>267</sup> Examples from ABG include:  $\bar{a}g\bar{a}$  (SWBal. aga(r) etc., cf. p. 190f.) "if",  $sar\bar{o}g\bar{a}n$  (SWBal.  $sar\bar{o}g\bar{a}n$ ) "head of a gang",  $l\bar{o}g\bar{t}$  (SWBal.  $l\bar{o}g\bar{t}$ , cf. p. 305) "wife" and numerous adjectives and infinitives in -ag.

# **CBal.** $-\check{c} > -\check{s}$ (GEIGER 1891:426):<sup>268</sup>

- $p^hašag$  پهشغ vs. (other dialects) pačag "to cook",  $t^hašag$  "vs. tačag "to run",  $s\bar{\imath}sin$  vs.  $s\bar{o}cin$ ,  $s\bar{u}cin$  "needle" (cf. p. 85, 180, 194, 198, 200);
- $r\bar{o}$ š روش vs.  $r\bar{o}$ č "day, sun",  $nam\bar{a}$ š نماش "prayer", aš اش vs. ač "of" (cf. p. 85).

# **CBal.** - $\check{j} > -\check{z}$ (GEIGER 1891:426):<sup>269</sup>

- $b\bar{o}\check{z}a\check{g}$  vs. (other dialects)  $b\bar{o}\check{j}ag$  "to open",  $g\bar{e}\check{z}a\check{g}$  vs.  $g\bar{e}\check{j}ag$  "swing, throw, bring forth" (cf. p. 98);
- $dr\bar{a}\check{z}$  دراژ vs.  $dr\bar{a}\check{j}$  "long" (cf. p. 86, 205).

There are some cases of hypercorrect SWBal. j for perceived EBal. z, e.g.

- dajuk(k) "hedgehog" for EBal. \*dažux (see above);
- $mu_{\tilde{I}}$  "mist, fog, storm" for EBal.  $mu\tilde{z}$  < OIr. \*mižā- (cf. p. 93, 286).

Loanwords are for the most part treated in the same way as genuine words. However, there are also borrowings which do not show the expected changes, but are aspirated instead, e.g.  $ba\check{c}^h$  "son" (NP, cf. p. 100) and  $mu\check{c}^h$  "collected" (in other dialects  $mu\check{c}(\check{c})$ , borrowed from Si.  $sik^hanu$  (DTB), both examples from GRIERSON 1921:391), DTB, GCD  $sik^hag$  (ABG  $sikk^hag$ , SWBal. sik(k)ag, borrowed from Sindhi according to DTB) "to learn",  $\check{s}ak^hal$  "sugar" ( $\check{s}akar$  in other sources, for -l, cf. p. 159).

## c) OIr. ft, xt

For OIr. *ft*, which chiefly occurs in past stems, one would expect EBal. *ft*, but all relevant forms show *pt* (GEIGER 1891:426, HÜBSCHMANN 1890:556), e.g.<sup>270</sup>

•  $k^hapt$ - (past stem of  $k^haf$ - "fall"),  $gwapt^h$ - (past stem of gwaf-, SWBal. gwap- "weave"), wapt- (past stem of waps- "go to sleep"), hapt "seven" (all DTB).

As these forms are unlikely to have systematically been borrowed from other dialects, there is obviously an EBal. change ft > pt (the same phenomenon is found in Avestan).

<sup>268</sup> ABG has  $r\bar{o}s$  "sun",  $nim\bar{a}s$  "prayer" (cf. p. 96), darsak "tree",  $mars\bar{i}$  "today". The latter two words need not show c > s / r, but might reflect CBal. \*dračak (cf. SWBal. dračk etc., p. 66) > \*drašak with metathesis (cf. p. 189) and  $mar\bar{o}c\bar{i}$  > \*mar $\bar{o}s\bar{i}$  with syncopation of the second vowel (parallel to or influenced by SBal.  $mar\bar{c}\bar{i}$  vs. WBal.  $mar\bar{o}c\bar{i}$ , cf. p. 139, 243). For hypercorrect buck, cf. p. 165.

<sup>269</sup> ABG has *ražag* (SWBal. *ražag*) "to colour", *darāž* "long", *dargēžģ* (syncopated from or a misprint for *dar-gēžaģ*, SWBal. *dar-gēžag*) "invention, contrivance" (from *gēj-*).

<sup>270</sup> It seems that in the case of postconsonantal  $t^h$ , the (expected, see above) aspiration is marked even less consistently than with word-initial  $t^h$ . GRIERSON 1921:391 has  $k^h apt^h$ -.

The past stems of roots in PIr. \*-k, \*-g show xt in Eastern Balochi as one would expect, e.g.  $\bar{a}xt$ - (past stem of  $\bar{a}$ - (SWBal.  $\bar{a}y$ -, cf. p. 185) "come"),  $b\bar{o}xt$ - (past stem of  $b\bar{o}z$ - "open", see above),  $t^haxt$ - (past stem of  $t^haz$ - "run", see above),  $d\bar{o}xt$ - (past stem of  $d\bar{o}z$ - (SWBal.  $d\bar{o}z$ -, cf. p. 79) "sew"), rixt- (past stem of  $r\bar{t}z$ - (SWBal.  $r\bar{e}z$ -, cf. p. 199) "pour"), gixt- (past stem of  $g\bar{e}z$ - "swing", see above).

MORGENSTIERNE 1932:44 and ELFENBEIN 1990/II:XVII maintain that past stems in *-tk* also occur; such forms may conveniently be explained as borrowings from the literary language which is a Southern Balochi dialect (cf. II 3.2.2.1).

## 3.2.1.1.2 Subdialectal features<sup>272</sup>

There is a certain number of phenomena which are specific to some, but not all EBal. dialects. The features below are ordered according to their probability of being characteristics of one or several subdialect(s).

## $\vartheta > s, \ \delta > z$

Some EBal. dialects show s, z in all words (including loanwords) where the other EBal. dialects have  $\vartheta$ ,  $\delta$ ; these dialects thus have s, z corresponding to SWBal. t, d in postvocalic position. GEIGER 1891:428 notes that he finds this phenomenon in GLADSTONE 1874 and HITTU RAM 1881, GRIERSON 1921:414 notes that it occurs in the speech of Baloch in Sindh. ABG transcribes s, z in all relevant cases. 274

These instances of s, z may be written either with the graphemes that are used for EBal.  $\vartheta$ ,  $\delta$  otherwise (cf. p. 226), i.e.  $\dot{z}$  /  $\dot{z}$  (e.g. in ABG), or with  $\dot{z}$  /  $\dot{z}$  (GRIERSON 1921:414).

<sup>271</sup> DTB has pakk- as past stem of  $p^h a \check{s} a \dot{g}$  "to cook" (see above), for which cf. p. 112.

<sup>272</sup> It is not sure whether *šai* "three" (LEECH 1838, HITTU RAM 1881) for usual *sai* (for which cf. p. 90) is a subdialectal phenomenon as assumed by GEIGER 1891:425 or rather an error of the sources of some sort. Note, however, that Choresmian and Sogdian have *šy*, too (MACKENZIE 1990:122).

<sup>273</sup> The terms of relationship thus become  $br\bar{a}s$  "brother",  $p^his$  "father",  $z\bar{a}m\bar{a}s$  "son-in-law",  $m\bar{a}s$  "mother". One should not confuse these with the (apart from the aspiration in  $p^his$ ) identical forms in -s found in some WBal. dialects, since the latter are unlikely to have been borrowed from Eastern Balochi, but will go back to the respective obl. case forms in OIr. - $\vartheta r$ -, cf. p. 89f.

<sup>274</sup> Dames thought (opinion expressed in a letter to Geiger, cf. GEIGER 1891:428) that s, z for  $\vartheta$ ,  $\delta$  is due to imperfect rendering of the data by some authors; with regard to the cumulative evidence of the sources, the phenomenon rather seems to be a real one, though.

## Examples from ABG:

- $\check{c}^h \bar{a}s$  "spring, font" vs. standard EBal.  $\check{c}^h \bar{a}\vartheta$ ,  $\bar{a}f$ -u- $gw\bar{a}s$  "weather (lit.: water and wind)" vs. otherwise  $gw\bar{a}\vartheta$  (for both examples, cf. p. 227),  $mu\beta\bar{a}rak\ b\bar{a}s^{275}$  "congratulations" (NP  $mub\bar{a}rak\ b\bar{a}d$  "may he/she be fortunate");
- šuz "hunger" vs. šuδ, šōzaġ "to wash" vs. šōδaġ, wahāz²<sup>76</sup> "salt" vs. whāδ (for all of these, cf. p. 228), šāhiz "witness" (NP-Ar. šāhid), quzrat (EAL kuzrat) "power" (NP-Ar. qudrat).

In some cases, SWBal. / standard EBal. s, z is perceived as being due to this dialectal phenomenon and hypercorrectly replaced:  $\vartheta r\bar{e}n$  (PIERCE 1874, cf. GEIGER 1890:145) "loins" for  $sr\bar{e}n$  (cf. p. 202) and  $warda\check{s}$  (ABG) "exercise" (NP  $warzi\check{s}$  "sports").

GRIERSON 1921:338 and MORGENSTIERNE 1948:256 suggest that the development of  $\vartheta$ ,  $\delta > s$ , z might be due to influence from Ind. languages which do not have  $\vartheta$ ,  $\delta$ .

#### $\vartheta > \delta$

EBal.  $\vartheta$ ,  $\delta$  both yield  $\delta$  in the Kasrānī dialect (spoken in the utmost North of the Bal. area, GRIERSON 1921:406, MORGENSTIERNE 1948:256),<sup>278</sup> e.g.  $bar\bar{a}\delta$  "brother" (vs. standard EBal.  $br\bar{a}\vartheta$ ),  $d\bar{\imath}\delta a$  "seen" (vs.  $d\bar{\imath}\vartheta a$ ),  $wa\delta\bar{\imath}$  "own" (vs.  $wa\vartheta\bar{\imath}$ ).

## -pt > -tt

GRIERSON 1921:406 reports an assimilation pt > tt for the Kasrānī dialect (the example is  $k^h atta$  "fallen" for  $k^h apt^h a$ ) and attributes it to Ind. influence.

<sup>275</sup> Since  $b\bar{a}s$  implies the existence of a development  $<*b\bar{a}\vartheta<*b\bar{a}t$ , it is an example of devoicing of final consonants in loanwords (cf. II 3.3.1.4).

<sup>276</sup> This might be intended to represent /whāz/, cf. p. 226.

<sup>277</sup> Neither *wardaš* nor *warziš* are found in other Bal. sources.

Arm. *vardapet* "instructor, master" is connected to the OP name *Artavardiya*- and the MP (and Prth.) verb *ward*- by AčARYAN IV:318f. The latter means "turn", however (OIr. √vart, OInd. √vrt), but the Arm. word might indeed involve a popular etymology which combines \*varza-pet (lit.: "master of the exercise") and MIr. *ward*-, MP *wardišn* "turning". The OP name *Artavardiya*- is likely to show a cognate of NWIr. \*warz- (cf. Av. √varz, BRANDENSTEIN/MAYRHOFER 1964:106), but an OP influence in Armenian is unlikely.

<sup>278</sup> For further features of the Kasrānī dialect, see below.

#### -m > -w

It has long been noticed that Balochi shows examples of a change of  $m > w/V_{\{V, \#\}}$ . This change is also seen in a number of other Western Ir. languages and is a typical feature of Kurdish, so that reason some authors have assumed that it might be inherited (e.g. MACKENZIE 1961:70). However, this seems rather implausible as far as Balochi is concerned since the feature only occurs in the EBal. dialects (GEIGER 1891:413), and even there only side by side with the variant preserving m. In some cases, the preceding vowel is nasalised (GEIGER 1891:411). The examples attested so far are shown in the table below, corresponding standard EBal. forms and Kurd. cognates given where attested. With the exception of  $nam\bar{a}\check{s}$  and nawad, corresponding words are attested in SWBal. as well. 280

	EBal. dial.	standard EBal.	Kurd.	NP
"face"	dễw	dēm	dîw	dīm
"grass; pus"	rē̃w	rēm		rīm
"son-in-law"	zā̃wāϑ	zāmāð	zava	dāmād
"you" (2pl.)	šawā, šā	SWBal. <i>šumā</i>		šumā
"bow"	kawān	SWBal. kamān	kevan	kamān
"doubt, suspicion"	guwān	SWBal. gumān	guman	gumān
"incomplete"	nā-twām	SWBal. nā-tamām		nā-tamām
"prayer"	nawāš	namāš	nöj	namāz
"felt"	nawad			namad
"between (in the middle)"	nyāwā	nyāmā	nîv	miyān
"butter"	nēwaġ	nēmaģ	nîvişk	
"that very"	hawān etc.	≈ ham-ā	hew	ham-ān
EBal. words with w for CBal. m				

<sup>279</sup> For further discussion, cf. KORN 2003:57. Note that the Prth. forms which have been claimed to show m > w require other interpretations (KORN 2003:57). For the Kurd. sound law m > w, cf. MacKenzie 1961:70, Asatrian/ Livshits 1994:95f. For examples from other Modern WIr. languages, cf. MacKenzie 1961:70.

<sup>280</sup> Except for *nā-twām* and citations in EAL, the items only occur in 19th century sources.

#### Notes:

- Kurd. *dîw* and *nöj* are from HALKAWT HAKIM 1996 (Sorani).
- $d\tilde{e}w$  is found in GEB, GEIGER 1891:414 (from GLADSTONE 1874). For further details about this word, cf. p. 199.
- $r\bar{e}w$  occurs in GEIGER 1891:414 (from GLADSTONE 1874). The word is a derivation of a root seen in  $r\bar{\imath}y$  "defecate" (OInd.  $\sqrt{r}$ i etc., cf. EWAia II:437), it might have been borrowed from NP (thus EAL). The semantics of NP  $r\bar{\imath}m$  "pus, filth, cinders, sediment" (MPM  $r\bar{e}m$  "dirt, filth") render it plausible that  $r\bar{e}m$  "pus" and  $r\bar{e}m$  "grass" are indeed one word.
- $z\tilde{a}w\bar{a}\vartheta$  is attested in GEB, GEIGER 1891:414 (from LEECH 1838 who has  $j\tilde{a}w\bar{a}\vartheta$ , its j- being interpreted as an error for z- by Geiger). For further details, cf. p. 88 and above.
- *kawān*: GEB, GEIGER 1891:414 (from GLADSTONE 1874, DAMES 1881, HITTU RAM 1881), DTB, EAL. The word may have been borrowed from NP.
- $guw\bar{a}n$  is from GEB (from DAMES 1881), DTB. As the gu- shows, the Bal. and Kurd. words have been borrowed from NP (HÜBSCHMANN 1890:557, cf. p. 98). EAL has  $gub\bar{a}n$ , a hypercorrect form based on the assumption that the -w- of  $guw\bar{a}n$  is due to the EBal. change  $b > \beta$  (cf. p. 228).
- *šawā*: GEB, GEIGER 1891:414 (from DAMES 1881, HITTU RAM 1881), DTB, cf. also p. 103, 126, 239
- $n\bar{a}tw\bar{a}m$  is found in ABG. For aw > (u)w, cf. p. 218.
- nawāš: GEB, GEIGER 1891:414 (from LEWIS 1838). For further details, cf. p. 96 and above.
- *nawad* is found in DTB, EAL. Judging from Av. *nəmata-* "brushwood", the Bal. word has been borrowed from NP. For further cognates (Osset. *nymæt* etc.), cf. ABAEV II:202f. The Ir. word has been borrowed into many neighbouring languages, including Arabic and Hungarian.
- $ny\tilde{a}w\tilde{a}$ : GEB, GEIGER 1891:414 (from GLADSTONE 1874, DAMES 1881, LEWIS 1885), DTB, EAL. For discussion of this word which has been borrowed from NP  $miy\bar{a}n$ , cf. p. 266.
- nēwag: GEB, GEIGER 1891:414 (from LEWIS 1838). For possible cognates, cf. BAILEY 1979:184b.
- *hawān*: GEB, GEIGER 1891:414 (from GLADSTONE 1874, DAMES 1881, HITTU RAM 1881, LEWIS 1885), DTB. *haw-ān* has either been borrowed from NP *ham-ān* or composed of *ham* and the pronoun *ān* (cf. p. 238). SWBal. *ham-ā* is a parallel formation with the pronoun *ā*.

## There are some possible cases of hypercorrect *m* for *w*:

• The -m- in  $p\bar{\imath}m\bar{a}z$  (all sources) "onion" may be explained as a hypercorrect substitution of m for w in \*p $\bar{\imath}w\bar{a}z$  (GEIGER 1891:417). \*p $\bar{\imath}w\bar{a}z$  might have been borrowed from Kurd.  $p\hat{\imath}vaz$ ; if borrowed from NP  $piy\bar{a}z$  (HORN 1893:77), \*p $\bar{\imath}m\bar{a}z$  shows a substitution of the vowel separator w for -y- (cf. II 2.4.3).

<sup>281</sup> EAL 116 notes Bashkardi  $p\bar{\imath}m\bar{u}$ ,  $p\bar{\imath}w\bar{a}z$  which shows something parallel to the Bal. situation. EAL has EBal.  $p\bar{\imath}w\bar{a}z$ , although it remains unclear where this form is found (DTB and Geiger's sources do not have it, neither do MAYER 1910 or GILBERTSON 1925).

<sup>282</sup> The identification of Bal.  $p\bar{t}m\bar{a}z$  as a loanword was stated by HORN 1893:77, although on different grounds. For Ir. cognates (e.g. Sogd. py'kh) and their possible derivation, cf. BAILEY 1979:250b.

<sup>283</sup> Similarly, ASATRIAN/LIVSHITS 1994:83 assume that the v seen in Kurd.  $p\hat{v}$  is a vowel separator.

- *nimāsag* (FBB, SHG, EAL)<sup>284</sup> might be a hypercorrect formation from the variant *nawāsag* (DTB, EAL, SHG etc.) "grandchild", which is a NP loanword, cf. p. 89. Alternatively, *nimāsag* may have been borrowed from Pashto *nmasai*,<sup>285</sup> which is not unlikely since *kuṛāsag* "great-grandchild"<sup>286</sup> has likewise been borrowed from Psht. *karwasai* etc. (GERSHEVITCH 1973:275).
- Although the variant *gwamz* for *gwabz* "wasp" (cf. p. 99) is not found in EBal. sources only, it might be possible to account for it by assuming the usual EBal. change of  $-b > -\beta$  (thence \*gwaβz) with substitution of m for  $\beta$ .
- nimis-/nimist, nimišt (EVM, EAL) "write" shows hypercorrect m for w. The details are not entirely clear; the EBal. variant of SWBal.  $nib\bar{\imath}s-/nibi\check{\imath}st^{287}$  would be \*ni $\beta\bar{\imath}s-/ni\beta\check{\imath}st$ , so that analogical developments have to be assumed. 288

# **3.2.1.1.3** Other phenomena<sup>289</sup>

## Metathesis

Eastern Balochi exhibits some instances of metathesis which are not found in other dialects, e.g.:

- $\bar{e}kw\bar{a}$ , obl. of  $\bar{e}wak$  "alone" (cf. p. 235);
- saġar "head" probably stands for \*saraġ, a derivative of sar;<sup>290</sup>
- *nērmōš* (cf. Geiger 1890:138) "noon" vs. usual *nēmrōč* (Geiger 1891:436).

<sup>284</sup> EAL numāsag might be a contamination of EVM nuwāsag (cf. p. 218) and nimāsag.

<sup>285</sup> There are several forms of this word in Pashto (borrowed from NP), cf. MORGENSTIERNE 1927:54. *nmasai* is used in Eastern Psht. dialects (Lutz Rzehak, personal communication), which makes a borrowing into Balochi possible.

<sup>286</sup> *kawāsag* "great-grandchild" might be the result of a contamination of *kuṛāsag* (cf. also p. 303) and *nawāsag* or borrowed from another Psht. dialectal variant (GERSHEVITCH 1973:275).

<sup>287</sup> This verb (the past stem is *nibišt*) has been borrowed from Persian (cf. MP *nibēs- / nibišt*). In the case of "to write", it is not as surprising as in the case of other verbs that the word was borrowed from neighbouring languages in which all written communication has been done (cf. also *lik(k)-*, p. 322). The MP verb itself shows NWIr. features (KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:216<sup>86</sup>).

<sup>288</sup> The existence of EBal. nawiš- / nawišt (EAL) does not seem to be sure.

<sup>289</sup> The two isolated cases of EBal. palatalisation assumed by GEIGER 1891:436 are probably to be explained otherwise:  $\check{c}y\bar{a}r$  "four" (otherwise  $\check{c}\bar{a}r$ ) is likely to have been borrowed from NP (cf. p. 120), and  $pa\check{j}y\bar{a}$ ,  $pa\check{j}\bar{i}$  "together with" need not be explained as  $pa + \check{j}\bar{a}$  "place" (cf. p. 106).

<sup>290</sup> Thus MORGENSTIERNE 1984:50. EAL notes *sagar* which would be the SWBal. form corresponding to *sagar*, but its existence seems questionable. The same applies to EAL *sarag* (SWBal.), which is maybe postulated because of Morgenstierne's etymology of *sagar*.

#### Assimilation

There is an assimilation of a kind not found in other dialects in

- čugzāxt (DTB), čuġzāxt (GCD) vs. čukh-zāxt (DTB, GCD) "grandchild" (cf. p. 303);
- $g\bar{\imath}\delta mahisk$  (DTB) "fly" from EBal.  $g\bar{\imath}\vartheta$  (SWBal.  $g\bar{\iota}t$  "mud") + mahisk "fly". <sup>291</sup>

#### Status of h

In contrast to some other Bal. dialects (cf. II 2.4.1.2), Eastern Balochi preserves h. According to Elfenbein 1990/II:XVI, it is also used as vowel separator (cf. II 2.4.3).

## **3.2.1.2** Vowels

## **Syncopation**

As noted above (cf. II 3.1.2.1), there is a certain shortage of examples for syncopation in Common Balochi. The following cases are found in Eastern Balochi:

- *āfsin* "pregnant" (EBal., GLADSTONE 1874, HITTU RAM 1881, DAMES 1881) has an additional suffix vs. SWBal. *āpus* (cf. p. 89),
- wasrik (GCD) vs. wasarik (DTB) "father-in-law" (cf. also p. 208 and below); two cases of syncopation and subsequent nasalisation (from ABG):
- zamāg for (other sources) zamānag<sup>292</sup> "time",
- $-\bar{e}g < -\bar{e}n$ -ag (caus. inf.);

plus two cases of syncopation in declension:

- ēkwā (GLADSTONE 1874, HITTU RAM 1881) besides ēwakā, obl. of ēwak "alone",
- the obl. case of jinik "girl" is jinka<sup>293</sup> in Sibi (MORGENSTIERNE 1948:283).

<sup>291</sup> Thus the explanation of GEIGER 1891:427, 429. GEIGER's former explanation (1890:134) of the word as containing *gis* "house" is rather unlikely. The inherited word for "fly" is *makisk* (cf. p. 78, 194), *magis(k)* was borrowed from NP *magas* (cf. p. 194). The reason for the *-h-* in the EBal. variant *mahisk* is not clear to me. For *gūt*, cf. p. 81.

<sup>292</sup> The etymology given by HORN 1893:146 (OInd. *jarimán*- "age" etc.) is not correct (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:69). Corresponding words found in diverse languages (e.g. Arm. *žamanak*, HÜBSCHMANN 1895:69) have been borrowed from Iranian (not vice-versa, as assumed in Horn's times), and the Bal. word was borrowed from NP (ELFENBEIN 1990/II:165). It belongs with (OInd., OIr.) √gam "go", for further Ir. cognates, cf. Bailey 1979:110a, for the MP orthography, cf. KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:201<sup>34</sup>.

<sup>293</sup> Maybe the stem  $jink^h$  (cf. p. 166) is based on this form. If this is not a misprint for  $jink\bar{a}$ , it shows a shortening of  $-\bar{a}$  found in some other dialects (cf. p. 251, 260), but not noted for Eastern Balochi.

• a similar phenomenon might be responsible for the past stems  $garand\vartheta$ "thundered",  $sub\vartheta$ - "pierced",  $sik^h\vartheta$ - "learnt" (cf. p. 317, 318, 322, respectively)
besides variants in EBal.  $-a\vartheta$ - (for which cf. p. 186) or SWBal. -it-.

According to GRIERSON 1921:401, the Upper Sindh dialect shows occasional contractions in verbal forms like  $b\bar{\imath}g\bar{e}$  for  $b\bar{\imath}ag\bar{e}$  (from  $b\bar{\imath}ag$  "to be, become"). GRIERSON 1921:405 notes that syncopation is frequent in the Kasrānī dialect, shortening verb forms like (common EBal.)  $b\bar{\imath}\partial agant$  to  $b\bar{\imath}\partial g\bar{a}^{294}$  "they became",  $\check{c}^h ar\bar{a}nag\bar{a} > \check{c}^h ar\bar{a}ng\bar{a}$  "for feeding" (for further contractions in this dialects, cf. p. 239).

### Neutralisation

There are a number of words in EBal. which seem to show a neutralisation of vowels, i.e. a in places where other dialects have some other vowel.<sup>295</sup> It is also possible that the process in question is to be regarded as a vowel assimilation given that in most words treated here, the other syllable contains a or  $\bar{a}$ .

At least some variants of Eastern Balochi show a in words and in contexts which are liable to give i in other dialects (cf. p. 193ff.). Cases of original u are:<sup>296</sup>

- DTB aškan- / aškuth-297 vs. SWBal. uškun-, iškan- "hear";
- DTB, GCD *barwān* vs. SWBal. (thus also GLADSTONE 1874) *burwān*, *birwān* "eyebrow" (cf. p. 208);
- DTB šafānk<sup>298</sup> vs. šupānk, šipānk "shepherd";
- GLADSTONE 1874 našār vs. (thus also DTB) nišār "daughter-in-law" (cf. p. 128);
- GLADSTONE 1874, DTB wasar-zāxt "brother-in-law" besides wasir-zāxt etc.

The explanation of a here might be either that u changed to a in palatal contexts in EBal. while it became i in SWBal., or that u was palatalised to i as in other dialects and

<sup>294</sup> For  $\vartheta > \delta$  in Kasrānī, cf. p. 231, for nasalisation, cf. p. 238.

<sup>295</sup> The pronunciation of Bal. *a* is described to be something between [a] and [ə], thus the transcription <ə> in ABG, BMC and in works by Tim Farrell.

<sup>296</sup> For variants of other dialects, cf. p. 195f. *tanak* "thin" vs. NP *tanuk* (for which cf. KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:212) which GEIGER 1891:405 would place here may show a different suffix (cf. p. 169).

<sup>297</sup> According to EAL XII, the Coastal dialect has *aškan-/aškut<sup>h</sup>-*, EBal. *aškun-, aškan-/aškut<sup>h</sup>-*. Lāšārī has *haškun, haškut* according to EAL XV, for which cf. p. 154. GERSHEVITCH 1998:111 assumes *aškun-* to have arisen by metathesis from \*uškan-. For the etymology, cf. p. 147, for more variants, cf. p. 196, 204.

<sup>298</sup> Other EBal. sources have šawānkh, for which cf. p. 225.

then neutralised to a. The fact that all EBal. words with a < u are found in variants with i in other dialects (cf. p. 195f.) might speak in favour of the latter hypothesis.

In the cases of prothetic *a*-, EBal. might preserve an earlier stage than the other dialects which have *i*- (cf. II 2.3.4). The examples are *aspēt* (ABG) vs. otherwise *ispēt* "white", *astār* (DAMES 1881, DTB) vs. usual (thus also GLADSTONE 1874) *istār* "star", *aštāfī* (DAMES 1881, DTB) vs. *ištāp* "hurry, quickness".

The appearance of a for i and u in loanwords shows that some process of vowel neutralisation must be at work anyway: sahr (NP-Ar. sihr) "magic",  $š\bar{a}gard$  (NP  $š\bar{a}gird$ ) "student",  $kal\bar{a}h$  (NP  $kul\bar{a}h$ ) "cap, hat" (NP  $kil\bar{i}d$ ) "key" and  $warda\check{s}$  (NP  $warzi\check{s}$ , cf. p. 231) "exercise" (all from ABG) as well as  $\check{j}agar$  (also  $\check{j}agar$  in SWBal.) "liver" (from NP  $\check{j}igar$ ). It is thus possible that cases like  $ast\bar{a}r$ ,  $a\check{s}t\bar{a}f\bar{i}$  do not represent the original stage but are also secondary products of  $ist\bar{a}r$ ,  $i\check{s}t\bar{a}p$ , respectively.

For the Kasrānī dialect (cf. also p. 231), GRIERSON 1921:405 notes additional cases of neutralisation in occasional  $k^h a \delta a$  for  $k^h u \delta a$  "made" (Standard EBal.  $k^h u \delta a$ ). The present stem of the same verb also appears as  $k^h i n$ - instead of  $k^h a n$ -.

## $\bar{u} > \bar{\iota}$

In EBal. dialects, OIr.  $\bar{u}$  is regularly changed to  $\bar{\iota}$  (cf. p. 196ff.).

#### Word-final vowels

MORGENSTIERNE 1932a:9 notes that in the Balochi of the Upper Sindh Frontier, a short vowel is often added to words ending in a consonant, perhaps reflecting the tendency observed in Sindhi of having every word ending in a vowel.<sup>302</sup>

<sup>299</sup> The SWBal. sources have *kulā(h)*. For the etymology, cf. HORN 1893:192f., HÜBSCHMANN 1895:88; according to the latter, Kurd. *kulav* (found in OMAR 1992 in the meaning "felt carpet") shows that the suffix probably goes back to \*-f, giving NP -h. This means that *kulāh* is a loanword (thus also GEIGER 1891:453).

<sup>300</sup> BMC, EAL, SHG have *kilīt*. The word cannot, as GEIGER 1891:453 assumes, be authentic on account of its -t since it is a Greek loanword in NP (κλειδ-). *kilīt* from NP *kilīd* thus shows the devoicing of word-final consonant common in loanwords (cf. II 3.3.1.4).

<sup>301</sup> For Kasrānī  $\bar{u}\delta\bar{a}$  "there", cf. p. 200.

<sup>302</sup> For parallel considerations phenomena in Karachi Balochi, cf. p. 246.

#### 3.2.1.3 Vowels + consonants

### Nasalisation of vowels

According to GRIERSON 1921:394, 401 and ELFENBEIN 1990/II:XVI, vowel + n often appears as a nasalised vowel in Eastern Balochi. The nasalisation processes are more far-reaching than in some other dialects (cf. II 3.1.3.3).

Examples of nasalised long vowels from DAMES 1893 include: obl.pl.  $-\tilde{a}$ , adj. suffix  $-\tilde{e}$ , 1pl. pres.  $-\tilde{u}$ ; these are used in all contexts (not only in front of consonants as in some other sources, cf. p. 213f.). Examples from ABG are numerous and include  $b\tilde{a}g$  "cry" (borrowed from NP  $b\bar{a}ng$ ),  $\bar{a}d\bar{i}k^{303}$  "mirror",  $ann\tilde{o}^{304}$  "now".

Nasalisation of short vowels seems to be limited to pronouns and verbal suffixes in Eastern Balochi: (DAMES 1891:15)  $m\tilde{a}$  "I" (otherwise man),  $ma\tilde{i}$  (gen. of  $m\tilde{a}$ , see below), 3sg. copula  $\tilde{e}$  (this form also occurs in Southern Balochi, cf. p. 245, 337).

Cases of loss of the nasal are  $ap^h\bar{a}n$  "leather sack" vs. SWBal.  $amp\bar{a}n$ ,  $dat^h\bar{a}n$  "tooth" vs.  $dant\bar{a}n$  (cf. p. 224, 225, respectively), DTB  $jat^hir$  "millstone" vs. regular jantar, jantir (cf. p. 104, 194f.); the loss of the nasal is obviously more recent than the EBal. change of postvocalic stops to fricatives.

Secondary nasalisation is seen in the pronouns (DAMES 1891:15f.):  $man\tilde{a}$  (obl.) "me",  $ma\tilde{i}$  (gen.) "my",  $ma\tilde{i}$  (gen.) "our", but, as GRIERSON 1921:401 notes, not in the dialect of the Upper Sindh frontier ( $man\bar{a}$ ,  $ma\bar{i}$  "me, my"). The Upper Sindh dialect, on the other hand, shows optional secondary nasalisation (GRIERSON 1921:401) in the 2sg. of the copula ( $\tilde{e}$  besides  $\bar{e}$ ) whereas in the 3sg., optional denasalisation occurs ( $\bar{e}$  besides  $\tilde{e}$ ). The obl.sg. in Kasrānī shows secondary nasalisation:  $-\tilde{a}$  (GRIERSON 1921:405).

<sup>303</sup> Other sources have ādēnk etc., cf. p. 79, 199.

<sup>304</sup> Other sources have  $ann\bar{u}n$  etc., cf. p. 202, 214.

<sup>305</sup> ABG has numerous examples of nasalisation of short vowels in regular nouns. As the words in ABG come from different dialects, it is not clear whether any of these are to attributed to Eastern Balochi, there do not seem to be any relevant examples with EBal. characteristics. Since, moreover, nasalisation of short vowels is found in other SBal. sources, the examples of V from ABG are treated as Southern Balochi here (cf. p. 244).

<sup>306</sup> Cf. V 1.2. The demonstrative pronoun  $\tilde{a}$  is less likely to show secondary nasalisation vs.  $\bar{a}$  of the other dialects, but may rather have been borrowed from NP  $\bar{a}n$ , cf. p. 243.

#### gwa-

In spite of ELFENBEIN's statement (1990/II:XVI) that "the reduction [of *gwa-*] to *gu-* is unknown" in Eastern Balochi, *gu-* seems to appear most consistently in the Eastern dialects compared to the others:<sup>307</sup>

- DTB guz- "pass by" and guf- "weave" for SWBal. gwaz- and gwap-, respectively;
- HITTU RAM 1881 (cf. GEIGER 1890:125) gumz "wasp" for gwamz;
- in the case of *guš* "say", this form has replaced *gwaš* in nearly all dialects (for all examples, cf. p. 219).

### **Contraction**

There is a contraction of awa and  $aw\bar{a}$  in

- *šawā*, *šā* "you (pl.)" (cf. p. 103, 126, 232f.);
- *šōšk* (GEB) "sell" besides *šawašk* (DTB, GCD, EAL, SHG, cf. p. 117, 177); ABG *šōšak* "sale" is likely to represent \*šōšk-ag.

Other cases of contraction from ABG are:

- *mābatt* (also in BMC)<sup>308</sup> "love" for *mahabbat* (NP-Ar. *mahabbat*);
- šālā (written شاك !) "hopefully" for NP-Ar. inšā'-llāh.

GRIERSON 1921:405 reports contractions of various kinds from the Kasrānī dialect (cf. also p. 236), e.g.  $p^h \bar{a} \delta - \bar{a} \dot{g} \bar{a} > p^h \bar{a} \delta w \bar{a}$  "I will rise (lit.: come [onto] foot)".

<sup>307</sup> gwa- > gu- is also noted for Kasrānī by GRIERSON 1921:406. The past stem of guz- is given as  $gwast^h$ - in DTB, though.

<sup>308</sup> EAL has *mahabat*, *mahābatt*, the latter probably representing a contamination of the original *mahab(b)at* and *mābat(t)*. For *mōbatt*, cf. p. 211.

## 3.2.2 Southern dialects (SBal.)

The Southern dialects as presented here include the dialects termed Kēčī and Coastal dialects in Elfenbein 1990/II:IXff.<sup>309</sup> These dialects are considered prestigious by many Baloch,<sup>310</sup> for which reason SBal. words may be found in texts from other dialects. They contain a number of literary words not necessarily found elsewhere. The Kēčī dialect in particular is used for writing literary works.

FBB (Karachi Balochi) and SHG (project based in Karachi) are sources for the Southern dialect, although occasionally elements of other dialects also occur, due to the mixed character of the Balochi population of Karachi<sup>311</sup> and (in the case of SHG) due to the long experience of Sayyad Hashmi with diverse varieties of Balochi. Among the older sources, PIERCE 1874, MARSTON 1877 and MOCKLER 1877 are based on Southern Balochi. Further information is found in GRIERSON 1921.<sup>312</sup>

## 3.2.2.1 Consonants

#### Metatheses

The metathesis of CBal. \*-kt- (for which cf. p. 111f.) to -tk in past stems of roots in velars seems to be best explained as a characteristic of the non-Eastern (with GEIGER 1891:418, 436), and, as it turns out, more precisely the Southern dialects.<sup>313</sup>

<sup>309</sup> For Sarāwānī and Lāšārī, cf. II 3.2.4.

<sup>310</sup> Cf. e.g. Elfenbein 2000:85.

<sup>311</sup> For further discussion of Karachi Balochi, cf. FARRELL 2003.

<sup>312</sup> Those older sources which treat the non-Eastern dialects do not specify their material for Southern or Western Balochi since the importance of that dialect division has only been recognised in more recent times (cf. I 3.1.2). However, of the sample texts in GRIERSON 1921, those on p. 364ff. are Southern Balochi with occasional WBal. characteristics, those on p. 376ff. are from the Panjgur area, thus WBal. (GRIERSON 1921:385). However, there are quite a number of SBal. characteristics in the latter texts, too, so they will be treated in this chapter.

<sup>313</sup> Cf. ELFENBEIN's note that the forms in -tk are found in the Lāšārī (but cf. p. 257), Kēčī and Coastal dialects (1990/II:IXff.). The classification of -tk as also EBal. feature (ELFENBEIN 1990/II:XVII, MORGENSTIERNE 1932:44) is unlikely to be correct (cf. p. 230).

- Examples of past stems from FBB:<sup>314</sup>

  atk<sup>315</sup> (past stem of (k)āy- "come"), bōtk (past stem of bōj- "open"), patk (past stem of pač- "cook"), tatk (past stem of tač- "run"), dōtk (past stem of dōč- "sew"), rētk (past stem of rēč- "pour"), gētk (past stem of gēj- "throw");
- examples of nouns:
   patk (EAL) "poplar tree, willow" if existing and if going back to \*pakt (MORGENSTIERNE 1937:348, 1948:290);<sup>316</sup>
   dut(t)uk (EAL: Kēčī, SHG) "daughter, doll" (MORGENSTIERNE 1932:44: < \*dutk < \*dukt, cf. NP duxt).<sup>317</sup>

A singular metathesis of CBal. -sp > -ps (GEIGER 1891:436) occurs in (h)aps (PIERCE 1874, MARSTON 1877, MOCKLER 1877) vs. asp "horse" (cf. also p. 90, 158f.).

### **Fricatives**

In Southern Balochi, the use of fricatives potentially occurring in loanwords is extremely restricted. SHG has no f, x, g at all, and FARRELL 1990:12 notes that they may always be replaced by p, k/h and g, respectively.

## Status of h

The SBal. dialects generally preserve h (ELFENBEIN 1990/II:IXff.). However, at least in some (probably eastern) Coastal dialects, h seems to be lost, and in Karachi, h is absent from the speech of many speakers, many more speakers having a very weak h (FARRELL 2003:177).

<sup>314</sup> SHG does not note the past stems of verbs.

<sup>315</sup> atk seems to have been analogically shortened from  $\bar{a}tk$  (EAL: Coastal, Kēčī; Lāšārī  $y\bar{a}tk$ ), following a principle that the past stem should be "lighter" than the present stem.

<sup>316</sup> The forms cited by MORGENSTIERNE 1948:290 as well as their derivation do not seem to be beyond doubt, cf. also ROSSI 1979:39.

<sup>317</sup> The meaning "daughter" is only attested in MAYER 1910 (cf. MORGENSTIERNE 1932:44) and EAL. According to SHG, the word means "doll, heavily decorated girl", it also denotes some plant which gives lots of flowers. In Brahui (for which cf. ROSSI 1979:13), *duttuk* means "doll, pupil of the eye". A variant *dut(t)ag* "daughter, doll, girl" (with the suffix replaced by the common suffix *-ag*) also exists (SHG, EAL, marked as literary in BMC). The usual word for "daughter" is *janik(k)* (also "girl").

According to ELFENBEIN 1990/II:IXff., secondary h- (cf. II 2.4.1.3) is quite common in Kēčī and the Coastal dialects and is also used as the preferred vowel separator. GRIERSON 1921:377 indeed notes  $\check{sahir}$  (NP-Ar.  $\check{sa}^cir$ ) "poet" for the "Makrānī dialect", and  $\check{sahat}$  (NP-Ar.  $\check{sa}^cat$ ) "time" is found in SHG.

## Subdialectal phenomena

GRIERSON 1921:376 notes that occasionally, word-initial consonants are aspirated, e.g.  $p^h \bar{a}d$  "foot",  $t^h au$  "you",  $\check{c}^h am$  "eye". Similarly, FARRELL 2003:179 notes that in Karachi "many speakers lightly aspirate all voiceless stops" (cf. also p. 224, 251).

According to GEIGER 1889:79, *p*- is changed to *f*- in some variety of Kēčī and/or Panj̃gūrī, e.g. *fatk* for *patk* "cooked" (see above), *fidar* for (NP loanword) *pidar* "father".

Unlike the other SBal. sources, SHG shows consistent gemination of consonants after  $\bar{\iota}$  and  $\bar{u}$  (not after other (long) vowels) in inherited and borrowed words, e.g.<sup>319</sup>

- $\check{cirr}^{320}$  "rip, tear" (but no gemination in  $\check{cer}$  "under"),  $d\bar{\imath}mm^{321}$  "stern (of a ship)" (vs.  $d\bar{e}m$  "face"),  $m\bar{\imath}kk$  "stake, pole, top of head";
- zūmm, zīmm "scorpion", sūččin, sīččin "needle";<sup>322</sup>
- in pīnzz, pūnzz (sic, not †pīzz, pūzz) "heel", the gemination operates even across n (cf. p. 197).

<sup>318</sup> GRIERSON 1921:376 assumes that stops may change to fricatives occasionally also in this dialect. However, family terms like  $\frac{1}{2}$  which he interprets as  $pi\vartheta$  etc. will rather represent pis etc. (these forms seem to belong to the Western dialects, cf. p. 89, 250), and the isolated case of the past stem gift (for gipt, from gir- "take", cf. p. 144) might have been borrowed from Eastern Balochi. Other points described by GRIERSON 1921:376 as characteristics differing from other SBal. sources are maybe not dialectal differences: the losses of final elements might rather point to morphological or syntactical differences than to phonological processes (cf. p. 243), paš "back, behind" besides pašt is likely to represent a different formation (cf. p. 125). For ku and  $b\bar{u}$ , cf. p. 246.

<sup>319</sup> For a similar phenomenon in Lāšārī, cf. p. 259.

<sup>320</sup> EAL has  $\check{cir}$ . The word has been borrowed from Ur.  $\check{cir}$  "tearing etc.".

<sup>321</sup> GEIGER 1891:410 has  $d\bar{\imath}m$  "back" which he compares to Av.  $d\bar{\imath}ma$ - (cf. also HÜBSCHMANN 1895:63). While the original vowel quantity of the Av. word is not clear (DE VAAN 2003:308), Balochi would require a proto-form \*d $\bar{\imath}ma$ -, provided the etymology is correct, while NP dunb (cf. p. 170) would rather point to a short vowel.

<sup>322</sup> For mīk, cf. p. 82f., 187, 200, for further discussion of zūm and sūčin, cf. p. 197f.

### **3.2.2.2** Vowels

## Loss of vowels<sup>323</sup>

There is a loss of a vowel in FBB, SHG  $mar\check{c}\bar{\iota}$  "today", probably an allegro variant of  $mar\bar{o}\check{c}\bar{\iota}$  of the other dialects (for which cf. p. 139).

#### $\bar{u} > \bar{\iota}$

Southern Balochi shows preserved  $\bar{u}$  as well as variants in  $\bar{\iota}$  (for examples and more discussion, cf. p. 196ff.). SHG usually has a variant with  $\bar{\iota}$  besides the one with  $\bar{u}$ . In FBB, the variants in  $\bar{\iota}$  predominate (e.g.  $b\bar{\iota}t$  "been",  $p\bar{\iota}z$  "heel",  $d\bar{\iota}r$  "far",  $z\bar{\iota}r$ - "take"), but in some cases, both variants are cited ( $tr\bar{u}$ ,  $tr\bar{\iota}$  "aunt"). According to ELFENBEIN 1990/II:IXff., it is the Coastal dialects which change  $\bar{u} > \bar{\iota}$ , with Kēčī preserving  $\bar{u}$ . It is not clear whether there are SBal. variants in which there is no  $\bar{u}$  at all (cf. also p. 57f.), although the interdialectal borrowing makes it probable that there are words with  $\bar{u}$  in every SBal. variant.

## 3.2.2.3 Vowels + consonants

#### **Nasalisation of vowels**

Nasalisation is far-reaching at least in some SBal. dialects. According to ELFENBEIN 1990/II:IXff., nasalisation is avoided in Kēčī and occasional in the Coastal dialects. However, the data in FBB and SHG indicate that the tendency towards nasalisation is very strong, "even heavier than in the rest of Makrān" (JAHANI 1989:81).<sup>324</sup>

FBB shows rather regular nasalisation of long vowels + n (e.g.  $g\tilde{o}$  "with",  $p\tilde{i}z$  "heel", adj. suffix  $-\tilde{e}$ , cf. also p. 213) while in SHG, nasalisation is common, but not without exceptions ( $g\bar{o}n$  "with" vs.  $p\tilde{u}z$  "heel").

<sup>323</sup> The loss of final  $-\bar{a}$  (obl.) and the -a of the perf. suffix assumed by GRIERSON 1921:376 need not be one, as the phenomena in question might rather reflect the use of the direct case instead of the oblique observed in some dialects (cf. e.g. BARANZEHI 2003:82, JAHANI 2003:123ff.) and the use of the simple past instead of the perfect.

<sup>324</sup> The nasalisation observed by (GRIERSON 1921:376) in the demonstrative pronouns  $\tilde{a}$  and  $\tilde{i}$  for usual  $\bar{a}$ ,  $\bar{e}$  is not secondary as he supposes since the (probably borrowed NP) pronouns  $\bar{a}n$ ,  $\bar{i}n$  are used in some Bal. dialects as well (cf. p. 102, 238).

In Karachi, nasalisation of short vowels is seen in a number of verbal forms (for which see below) as well as in the pronoun  $m\tilde{a}^{325}$  "I" (man in other dialects).

Some SBal. dialects show nasalisation of short vowels outside of the domain of pronouns and verbal inflection. The details are not completely clear yet, though.<sup>326</sup>

## Examples are:

- $t\tilde{a}k$  (SHG) "narrow" vs. regular tank which may be genuine (cf. p. 168f.) whereas  $t\tilde{a}g$  (ABG, SHG) "narrow" (other sources: tang) has been borrowed from NP tang (GEIGER 1890:148);
- $j\tilde{a}g$  (ABG) "battle, war",  $j\tilde{a}g\bar{\iota}$  (SHG) "relating to battle" vs. regular  $jang(\bar{\iota})$  (borrowed from NP jang, GEIGER 1891:451);
- *jãgal* (ABG, SHG) "forest" vs. regular *jangal* (originally from Ind., LOKOTSCH 1927:74, but the Bal. word might nevertheless have been borrowed from NP) with its derivative *jãglī* (ABG) "wild" vs. regular *jangalī*;
- čãgul (ABG, SHG) "claw" vs. čangul (Ur. loanword);
- rãg (ABG) "colour" vs. rang;327
- zamīn-jũb (ABG)<sup>328</sup> "earthquake";
- sãg (ABG, SHG), sĩg (SHG) "stone" vs. regular sang, sing (cf. p. 139);
- *šãbā* (ABG) "Saturday" vs. *šamba*, *šambē* (cf. also p. 191).

The nasalisation processes in SHG seem to depend on the preceding consonant, if not even on the individual who prepared the respective chapter of the dictionary: with word-initial tVn-, nasalisation in anteconsonantal or word-final position is regular (the only exceptions being  $tand\bar{o}$  "web-like" and  $tand\bar{u}r$  "oven" where it is probably the

<sup>325</sup> In FARRELL's transcription (1990:15 etc.), the word appears as <mən / mã> (with <ə> being used for /a/ and <a> for /ā/). There is no difference in the vowel of <jã> (Farrell's orthography, cf. the table below) "he/she hits", i.e. /jant/, and <zã> "he/she knows", i.e. /zānt/, so the nasalisation products of long and short *a* are obviously pronounced identically at least in this dialect.

<sup>326</sup> It is not clear whether the examples from ABG do come from a SBal. dialect. However, evidence of nasalisation of short vowels in regular nouns in other dialects is lacking so far, and none of the words in question show EBal. characteristics, so it is assumed that they belong here.

<sup>327</sup> According to MACIUSZAK 1996:26, Ir. *rang* (for cognates, cf. BAILEY 1979:362b) is an Ind. loanword (cf. OInd., Pali *ranga*-). If so, Bal. *rang* has been borrowed from NP *rang* as GEIGER 1891:458 assumes. Arm. *erang* has been borrowed from MP (Jost Gippert, personal communication) and thus does not help to decide anything.

<sup>328</sup> Bal. zamīn has probably been borrowed from NP zamīn (cf. also zamīk, p. 163).

following dental which prevents nasalisation), whereas in the case of jVnC, the only words which do show nasalisation are  $j\tilde{a}g\bar{t}$ ,  $j\tilde{a}gal$  (see above) and  $j\tilde{t}gul$  "little sparrow".

The following verbal forms show nasalisation of -Vnt when not in antevocalic position:<sup>329</sup>

nasalised form (FARRELL 1990:29f., 2003:174)	antevocalic form	
jã	<i>jant</i>	3sg.pres. of <i>jan-</i> "strike"
dã	dant	3sg.pres. of dēy- "give"
kã	kant	3sg.pres. of kan- "do"
iškã	iškant	3sg.pres. of iškan- "hear"
zã	zānt	3sg.pres. of <i>zān-</i> "know"
$ ilde{e}^{330}$	int	3sg.pres. copula

In the cases of  $\tilde{a}$  (3pl.cop.) vs. *ant* of other dialects and  $\tilde{e}$  (1pl.cop.) vs.  $\bar{e}n$  otherwise, the Karachi dialect has generalised the anteconsonantal form to all environments.

Nasalisation in SBal. goes so far that minimal pairs can be found with nasalised vs. non-nasalised vowels, so that nasal vowels (at least  $\tilde{a}/\tilde{a}$ ,  $\tilde{e}$ ,  $\tilde{o}$ ) are posited as phonemes by FARRELL 2003:173f. The examples are (FARRELL 2003:174):

long vowel	nasalised vowel	cf. long vowel + n
$-\bar{a}$ obl.sg.	- $ ilde{ ilde{a}}$ obl.pl.	-ān pres.part.
$\check{j}\bar{a}$ "strike" past stem	$\check{j}\tilde{a}$ "hit" 3sg.pres.	<i>jān</i> "body"
dā "give" past stem	dã "hit" 3sg.pres.	dān "grain"
$\bar{o}$ "and"	$\tilde{o}$ "be" 1sg.pres.	ōn "blood"

<sup>329</sup> For similar doublets in Iranian Balochi, cf. p. 263.

<sup>330</sup> The same form occurs in Eastern Balochi, cf. p. 238.

## gwa-

Although according to ELFENBEIN 1990/II:IXff., gwa- is sometimes changed to gu- in Southern Balochi,  $gu\check{s}ag$  (which is almost exclusively attested in this form) "to say" seems to be the only instance of gu- < gwa- found in SBal. sources.

### **Word-final consonants**

FARRELL 2003:178 observes a tendency to drop word-final consonants in the Balochi of Karachi, maybe reflecting influences of Sindhi syllable structure (for a similar phenomenon in Eastern Balochi, cf. p. 237). ku for ku(r)t "did" and  $b\bar{u}$  for  $b\bar{u}t$  "became" may be explained in this context and simultaneously show a phenomenon of allegro pronunciation (for kut, cf. p. 146).

## 3.2.3 Western dialects (WBal.)

Although not the most prestigious group of dialects, Western Balochi, which chiefly comprises the dialects known as Raxšānī, is by far the most widely spoken Bal. idiom and therefore serves as a "lingua franca" in many situations of communication among Baloch of different dialects. With regard to the sources, the situation is much better than for other dialects: BARKER/MENGAL 1969 describe Pakistani Raxšānī, NAWATA 1981 and BUDDRUSS 1988 Afghan Raxšānī, and several works by Soviet scholars treat the Balochi of Turkmenistan (with ELFENBEIN 1963 as a glossary). On the other hand, testimonies for earlier periods are mostly wanting.

The WBal. dialects are the only ones which have been treated phonetically (e.g. SOKOLOVA 1953, cf. also the notes by BUDDRUSS 1988:43ff.). Since corresponding studies for the other dialects are lacking, it is possible that some of the features described below are also found in other dialects, but have gone unnoticed so far.

#### 3.2.3.1 Consonants

#### OIr. xt

WBal. dialects exhibit ht in past stems of roots in velars. In those dialects which have no h (for which see below and II 3.2.3.3), ht is simplified to t (with compensatory lengthening where possible). However, substitution of SBal. forms (owing to the prestige of Southern Balochi) or of secondary past stems in -it are often found. Examples:<sup>331</sup>

• GRIERSON 1921:376 *aht* (for the *a*-, cf. p. 241), EVM, SOKOLOV 1956, NAWATA 1981:36  $\bar{a}t$  (past stem of  $(k)\bar{a}y$ - "come"); EAL  $p\bar{a}(h)t^{332}$  (past stem of  $pa\check{c}$ - "cook"); EAL  $t\bar{a}(h)t^{333}$  (past stem of  $ta\check{c}$ - "run");

<sup>331</sup> BMC, although being a description of a WBal. dialect, has the SBal. forms in -tk (cf. p. 240f.). The only WBal. past stem with -ht in BMC is  $(k)\bar{a}(h)t(k)$  (sic) as past stem of  $\bar{a}y$ - "come" which is probably intended to imply that the WBal. past stem  $(k)\bar{a}(h)t$  is used besides SBal.  $\bar{a}tk$  (note that FBB has atk, though, cf. p. 241).

The WBal. past stem of  $b\bar{o}_{l}^{*}$  "open" is not found in the sources available to me.

<sup>332</sup> EVM, EAL, SOKOLOV 1956:81 have the neo-past stem *pakkit*. *pakt* noted by NAWATA 1981:17 might be (if not an error for SBal. *patk*) a contamination of SBal. *patk* and expected *paht*. EAL  $p\bar{a}ht$  is a contamination of expected *paht* with  $p\bar{a}t$  (for  $ah > \bar{a}$  and the contamination process, cf. p. 252f.).

<sup>333</sup> EAL, SOKOLOV 1956:80 have secondary tačit.

• SOKOLOV 1956:80, NAWATA 1981:17  $d\bar{o}t^{334}$  (past stem of  $d\bar{o}c$ - "sew"); EVM, SOKOLOV 1956:81, NAWATA 1981:17  $r\bar{e}t$  (past stem of  $r\bar{e}c$ - "pour"); EAL  $g\bar{e}(h)t$  (past stem of  $g\bar{e}j$ - "throw").

### Status of h

In WBal. dialects, h is always only optional. According to BARKER/MENGAL 1969/I:xxxii, word-initial h is lost more often in front of long vowels than in front of short ones. Similarly, word-final h tends to be dropped more often when it follows a long vowel. Barker/Mengal also note that the non-pronunciation of h is not always reflected in writing.

In other WBal. dialects, the weakness of h is even more marked (BUDDRUSS 1988:44 notes complete absence of h in word-final position and very weak articulation elsewhere for Afghan Balochi), with Turkmenistan Balochi marking the extreme point where no h occurs at all.

## Examples:

- *ak* (EVM), (*h*)*ak* (BUDDRUSS 1988:44), (*h*)*akk* "right" for *hak*(*k*) (NP-Ar. *ḥaqq*); *amra*<sup>336</sup> (BUDDRUSS 1988:44), *amrā* (EVM), (*h*)*amrā*(*h*) (BMC) "companion" for (NP) *ham-rāh*;
  - ušk (EVM), (h)ušk (BMC) "dry" for hušk (cf. p. 94);
- bā (EVM) "price" for (NP) bahā;
   gwār (EVM, FBB, EAL, NAWATA 1981:37, BUDDRUSS 1988:74), gu(h)ār (BMC)
   "sister" for gwahār (cf. p. 99, 123, 219);
- $t\bar{\imath}rm\bar{a}$  (EVM, NAWATA 1981:19)<sup>337</sup> "autumn" for  $t\bar{\imath}rm\bar{a}h$  (borrowed from NP  $t\bar{\imath}rm\bar{a}h$  "autumn"<sup>338</sup>);  $k\bar{o}(h)$  (BMC) "mountain" for (NP)  $k\bar{o}h$ .

<sup>334</sup> EAL *duht* would show the original zero-grade form of the root, which may be from SPOONER 1967:57 who has IrBal. *doht* which in his notation means /duht/ (cf. p. 257).

<sup>335</sup> For anteconsonantal h, cf. p. 252f.

<sup>336</sup> For the shortening of word-final vowels, cf. p. 251.

<sup>337</sup> BMC  $t\bar{\imath}rmag$  implies loss of the -h and subsequent interpretation of  $-\bar{a}$  as a case of neutralisation of word-final -a (cf. p. 190f.) and treatment of the latter as suffix -ag (cf. p. 165).

<sup>338</sup> *tīr-māh* literally means "month of *tīr*". *tīr* is etymologically connected to Av. *tištriia-* "Sirius", a star appearing on the sky in autumn and thus described as the bringer of rain by the speakers of Avestan (cf. FORSSMAN 1968:56ff.). For the semantic change of *tīr* as the name of a given month to "autumn", cf. SUNDERMANN 2003:250f.

Loss of h is also found in spoken Dari (DOROFEEVA 1960:16) and Pashto (GEIGER 1893:215).

## **Vowel-separating consonants**

Western Balochi has secondary y, w and h in vowel-separating function (examples from BUDDRUSS 1988:43f. unless indicated otherwise):<sup>339</sup>

- kōṭa-y-ai (gen. of kōṭa "room"); ē-y-at "this was";
- $\check{c}e^{-w-\bar{a}}$  (obl. of  $\check{c}e^{-w}$ );  $na-w-ai^{-w}$  "you are not" (cop.2sg.);
- $\check{ca}$ -h ant "there is (lit.: are) tea" (BARKER/MENGAL 1969/I:xxxiii); sahat (sic) "hour" (NP-Ar.  $s\bar{a}^cat$ ). 340

Some WBal. dialects (EVM, EAL: Raxšānī)<sup>341</sup> have ra- "go" for raw- of other dialects. It is possible that this loss of w represents an analogical loss of a perceived secondary w. The variant ray- (EAL: Raxšānī, Sarāwānī, Coastal dialects) shows a vowel-separating y.

## Gemination

WBal. sources vary quite a bit with regard to the gemination of consonants.

In BMC, gemination of word-final consonants is very frequent (with the exceptions of two words, after short vowels only). One group where final gemination occurs are loanwords (cf. II 3.3.1.5), the rest are words where a consonant group has been

<sup>339</sup> According to ELFENBEIN 1990/II:VII, the vowel separator is w in Afghan Raxšānī and y, w elsewhere. However, h is found quite often, too.

<sup>340</sup> BUDDRUSS's assumption (1988:44) that Ar. <sup>c</sup> is directly replaced by *h* does not seem plausible: there is no dialect of Balochi (neither of NP from where the Ar. loanwords are likely to have been borrowed for the most part) in which Ar. <sup>c</sup> is pronounced as such (cf. p. 63).

<sup>341</sup> NAWATA 1981:22 has *b-ra* (ipr.), but *raw-ai* (2sg.pres., NAWATA 1981:38), BUDDRUSS 1988:80 similarly has ra(w)- $\bar{i}n$  (1sg.pres.), b-ra- $\bar{i}n$  (1sg.subj.), but raw-ai. For the distribution of further variants, cf. p. 128.

assimilated, e.g. *piss*<sup>342</sup> "father", *čamm* "eye" (cf. p. 126), *nazz* "near" (cf. p. 125) vs. simple consonants (not going back to a consonant group) e.g. in *gis* "house" (cf. p. 87), *jan* "woman" (cf. p. 86), *ač* "of" (cf. p. 85).

BUDDRUSS 1988:44f. notes that in the speech of his informant, there is no gemination in most words where BMC has it. Gemination is not found in EVM and NAWATA 1988 either.<sup>343</sup>

## Other phenomena

Although the fricatives x, g, f occurring in NP and NP-Ar. loanwords are mostly replaced by k/h, g, p, respectively (cf. II 1.2.2), it seems that in Western Balochi, the fricatives are pronounced rather frequently (MORGENSTIERNE 1932a:7f.), indicating a rather high degree of familiarity with NP on the part of the speakers compared to that of other dialects.

The use of fricatives is mentioned in NAWATA 1981:3; BUDDRUSS 1988:44 notes that in the speech of his informant, x occurs quite often (in the rest of the cases, it is replaced by h or zero), g in most relevant cases (only one case of g), but f only in conscious imitation of educated speech (usually p appearing instead); NP(-Ar.) q is always replaced by k. RASTORGUEVA 1966:327 has x and g (but no g) for the Balochi of Turkmenistan.

MORGENSTIERNE 1932a:8 notes an occasional change of d, d to  $\delta$ , r, respectively, for the dialect of Panj̃gūr.<sup>344</sup>

Note that *mās* "mother" and *brās* "bother" do not show a geminate, which is due to the long vowel (cf. II 3.1.1.1). The family terms in -s(s) (for the etymology, cf. p. 89) clearly belong to the Raxšānī dialect (thus also Elfenbein 1990/II:VIIff.). Although Grierson 1921:385 says that they are typical for the Panjgūrī dialect, the distribution (at least in contemporary times) is much larger than that, the forms being attested in BMC, EVM, NAWATA 1981, BUDDRUSS 1988, i.e. Pakistani Raxšānī, Afghanistan and Turkmenistan. They are also mentioned in SHG where the main entry is *pit* etc. Conversely, MORGENSTIERNE 1932a:9 notes the use of *pit* etc. corresponding to "SBal." *pis* for Nōškē which belongs to the WBal. dialect area.

<sup>343</sup> The impression gathered from fieldwork by Lutz Rzehak (personal communication) is that gemination seems to be rather arbitrary, depending markedly on the idiolect of the speaker.

<sup>344</sup> For other phenomena involving d and r, cf. II 3.1.1.4.

Aspiration of word-initial stops is not uncommon also in WBal. dialects: according to ELFENBEIN 1963:365, it often occurs in Panj̃gūrī, and SOKOLOVA 1953:50ff. notes that the voiceless stops are aspirated at least in word-initial position and that postvocalic stops tend to be pronounced as fricatives or affricates.

n has the allophones [n] and [n] next to a retroflex and velar, respectively (SOKOLOVA 1953:50ff., RASTORGUEVA 1966:327, BUDDRUSS 1988:44). In addition, BARKER/MENGAL 1969/I:xxxv note a palatal allophone of n when next to  $\check{c}$ ,  $\check{\gamma}$ .

The pronunciation of bw- at least in Afghan Balochi is [bŏo-] according to BUDDRUSS 1988:44, e.g. b- $w\bar{a}rt$  [bŏoa:rt] "he/she should eat", so that the imperative b-war comes out as [bo:r]. 346

#### **3.2.3.2** Vowels

## Loss and shortening of vowels

Some WBal. dialects show elision of vowels in certain pronominal forms:  $mn\bar{\iota}$  "my" and  $mn\bar{a}$  "me" for  $man\bar{\iota}$ ,  $man\bar{a}$  of other dialects (gen. and obl. of man "I", respectively),  $tr\bar{a}$  "you (sg.)" for  $tar\bar{a}$ ,  $tur\bar{a}$  elsewhere (obl. of tau) in RASTORGUEVA 1966:332, BUDDRUSS 1988:50,  $šm\bar{a}$  "you (pl.)" for  $šum\bar{a}$  (RASTORGUEVA 1966:332).

According to BUDDRUSS 1988:43, unstressed word-final vowels in Afghan Balochi are often shortened to medium length, thence e.g. the obl. sg. ending -a. Turkmenistan Balochi has obl.  $-\bar{a}$ , but gen.pl.  $-\bar{a}ni$  for  $-\bar{a}n\bar{\iota}$  of other dialects (RASTORGUEVA 1966:329).

<sup>345</sup> It is highly likely that similar allophones are found in other dialects as well without being noted by the relevant sources.

<sup>346</sup> A contraction of [baw-] is also seen in Zaz. biw- > bo- (Jost Gippert, personal communication).

<sup>347</sup> NAWATA 1981:11 has mnā, but no syncopation in the other forms.

<sup>348</sup> There is a similar phenomenon in Sarāwānī (cf. p. 260). Some uncertainty concerning the length of word-final  $-a/-\bar{a}$  is also found in other sources, cf. the variation of  $(^{\circ})da / (^{\circ})d\bar{a}$  "ten, oten" in FARRELL 1990:21, 26, 30, 86f.; the comparatively common lengthening of word-final -a might also point to a general coalescence of -a and  $-\bar{a}$  (cf. also p. 190f.) at least in some (sub)dialects.

## Changes of quality

a has a more closed allophone ([x] or [x]) when next to y according to BUDDRUSS 1988:43, e.g.

• kissa-y-ē [kisseiē] "one story", garmī-y-a [garmīie] "heat" (obl.).

SOKOLOVA 1953:50ff. and RASTORGUEVA 1966:326f. note the allophones (closed) [e] and [o] for i and u in closed syllables, e.g.

- b-gir [bger] "take! (sg.)" vs. gir-īn [girīn] "I take";
- *šut* [šot] "he/she went" vs. *šut-ī* [šutī] (with pron.suffix 3sg.). 349

Word-initial u,  $\bar{o}$  is pronounced wu-,  $w\bar{o}$ - at least in some contexts in BUDDRUSS 1988:43 (occasionally also in SOKOLOVA 1953:52), e.g.

- wuškin- (otherwise uškin- etc., cf. p. 147, 196) "hear";
- *wōn* (for (*h*)*ōn*, cf. p. 215) "blood".

No notice of this phenomenon has been found in other WBal. sources. The addition of w- is obviously more recent than the loss of h in these dialects.

In contrast to some other Bal. dialects (cf. p. 237, 243),  $\bar{u}$  is not changed to  $\bar{\iota}$  in Western Balochi (ELFENBEIN 1990/II:VII).

### 3.2.3.3 Vowels + consonants

## **V**hC

CBal.  $ah > WBal. \bar{a}$ :

WBal. h is lost with compensatory lengthening of the preceding vowel in the context ahC. In most cases, BMC also has variants with hypercorrect h, i.e.  $\bar{a}h$ C.  $^{350}$ 

<sup>349</sup> For i, u pronounced as [e], [o] in Iranian Balochi, cf. p. 261.

<sup>350</sup> The process of loss of h appears not to be entirely clear to BARKER/MENGAL 1969/I:xxxii who treat e.g.  $\delta \bar{a}r$  (also in NAWATA 1981:38, BUDDRUSS 1988:81) as a h-less variant of  $\delta \bar{a}hr$  (sic) "town" etc., comparable to abar vs. habar "word, matter", without explaining the difference in vowel length in comparison with the form  $\delta ahr$  of the other dialects (and NP). It is not entirely clear whether the variants with  $\bar{a}hC$  noted by Barker/Mengal (and in EAL, maybe following Barker/Mengal) exist or are due to their interpretation of the processes affecting ah.  $ahC > \bar{a}C$  can also be observed in Tajik dialects (e.g.  $\delta \bar{a}r$  "town", LAZARD 1956:124) and in Dari (e.g.  $\delta \bar{a}r$  "town",  $p\bar{a}l\bar{u}$  "side",  $d\bar{a}$  "ten",

Examples (ordered according to the following consonant):

- *šā*(*h*)*t* (BMC, EAL) for *šahd*, *šaht* "honey" (cf. p. 207, 269);
- āhd (EAL) for ahd "promise" (cf. p. 207); wād (BMC, EVM, EAL, NAWATA 1981:29), wāhd (BMC) for wahd "time" (NP-Ar. waqt, cf. also below);
- *zāhg* (BMC) for *zahg* "child" (MP *zahag*), *zāg* (BMC, EVM, NAWATA 1981:35, BUDDRUSS 1988:84, EAL, cf. p. 184);
- $b\bar{a}r$  (BMC, EVM, EAL) for bahr "share" (cf. p. 184);<sup>351</sup>  $z\bar{a}r$  "anger" for and besides zahr "poison";<sup>352</sup>
- pālunk (EVM) for pahlūg etc. "side" (cf. p. 163f., 166, 268); tāl (BMC, NAWATA 1981:38), tāhl (BMC) for tahl "bitter" (cf. p. 119);
- $p\bar{a}n\bar{a}d$  (EVM, BMC),  $p\bar{a}hn\bar{a}d$ ,  $p\bar{a}(h)n\bar{a}t$  for  $pahn\bar{a}d$ ,  $pahn\bar{a}t$  "side, width"; <sup>353</sup>  $kw\bar{a}n$  (FBB) "old" for kwahn (SHG) etc. (cf. p. 120);
- zām (PIERCE 1874, BMC), zāhm (BMC) for zahm "sword" (borrowed from NP

351 For the etymology, cf. p. 206.  $b\bar{a}r$  kanag "to apportion" is even given in (the basically SBal. source) FBB. There are two other words  $b\bar{a}r$ , viz.  $b\bar{a}r$  "load" (from bar- "carry") and  $b\bar{a}r$  "time (x times)". If the latter is a cognate of OInd.  $v\bar{a}ra$ - "appointed time, turn" (cf. HORN 1893:36), MPZ  $b\bar{a}r$  (not †wār) must have been adjusted to  $b\bar{a}r$  "load", both words being interpreted as one. If so, Bal.  $b\bar{a}r$  "time" has been borrowed from Persian (thus GEIGER 1890:116). It is possible that  $b\bar{a}r < bahr$  is interpreted as yet another meaning of the same word, which might facilitate the change of  $bahr > b\bar{a}r$ .

ELFENBEIN 1990/II:21 states that GEIGER 1890:115f. is wrong in assuming that  $b\bar{a}r$  "load" and  $b\bar{a}r$  "time" coalesced in Balochi as they did in NP and that Bal.  $b\bar{a}r\bar{e}$  "always" is derived from this word. The reason for this statement is not entirely clear; maybe Elfenbein's underlying assumption is that Bal.  $b\bar{a}r$  "time" either does not exist or is secondary to the variant bar. However, both bar and  $b\bar{a}r$  "time" do exist. It thus seems to be better to assume that  $b\bar{a}r$  "time" has been borrowed from NP and that bar is a shortened variant of it (for vowel shortenings, cf. II 3.1.2.2.1).

Bal.  $w\bar{a}r$  "time" (BMC, NBA, EAL; also in yak  $w\bar{a}r$  "suddenly") has certainly been borrowed from Ind. (cf. ELFENBEIN 1963:80, ROSSI 1979:337 etc., cf. Lhd.  $v\bar{a}r$ , Si.  $v\bar{a}ri$ , all from OInd.  $v\bar{a}ra$ -"appointed time, turn", cf. TURNER 1966:673). JAHANI's statement (1992:175) that  $w\bar{a}r$  is "clearly the same word as Persian  $b\bar{a}r$ " (obviously rejecting the interpretation of  $w\bar{a}r$  as Ind. loanword cited in BUDDRUSS 1988:82) seems to imply that  $w\bar{a}r$  has been borrowed from NP; this appears impossible, though, since NP b- is rendered by Bal. b- and MP w- by Bal. gw- (cf. II 3.3.1.7.1).

- 352 For more details and the etymology, cf. p. 206.
- 353 *pahnād* may have been borrowed from early MP \*pahnād, cf. MPZ <phn'd> *pahnāy* (Nicholas Sims-Williams, personal communication). Alternatively, it might have been formed in Balochi from the NP loanword *pahn* "wide" (a cognate of Bal. *patan*, cf. p. 81) with the suffix also seen in derivatives of inherited words, e.g. *burzād* "above", EBal. *drāžād* "length".

DOROFEEVA 1960:16).

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zaxm "wound")354 etc.355
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In analogy to these forms, there are cases of secondary h in words with  $\bar{a}C$  not going back to ahC, e.g.

- BMC  $p\bar{a}(h)r\bar{i}$  "last (time)" vs. normal  $p\bar{a}r\bar{i}$  (cf. p. 163);
- $k\bar{a}(h)n$  (BMC) for  $k\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}g$  "well, spring", and there is even a common variant (EAL, SHG)  $kahn\bar{\imath}(g)$  (cf. p. 82-83).

Some (presumably particularly recent) loanwords show loss of h after short a without compensatory lengthening:

- awāl (BMC, EVM) for ahwāl (BMC and other sources) "news" (NP-Ar. ahwāl);
- *malūk* (BMC) for *mahlūk*, *maxlūk* "people" (NP-Ar. *maxlūq*);
- wad, wat (BMC) for wahd, waht "time" (NP-Ar. waqt).

*ih*, *uh* are changed to  $\bar{e}$ ,  $\bar{o}$ , respectively (cf. II 3.1.3.2).

#### Nasalisation of vowels

In Western Balochi, nasalisation is much less widespread than in some EBal. and SBal. dialects (cf. p. 238, 243ff.) and seems to be entirely absent from Afghanistan and Turkmenistan Balochi (cf. EVM, NAWATA 1981:3, BUDDRUSS 1988:43).

However, the change of  $\bar{V}n > \tilde{V}$  is common at least in Pakistani Raxšānī:<sup>357</sup> "Within the word, a long vowel + /n/ + a consonant often sounds like a nasalised vowel + the consonant" (BARKER/MENGAL 1969/I:xxxvi). In the majority of cases, Barker/Mengal feel that "there is (...) enough length to the /n/" to justify a transcription as Vn. In some words (among them the numbers 11-19), however, the pronunciation with nasalised vowel is more common (for examples, cf. p. 214). Word-final -Vn is preserved as such with the exception of "certain (...) suffixes which consist of a vowel + /n/ before a

<sup>354</sup> NP *zaxm* is derived from \*jaθma- by MACKENZIE 1967:26. Parthian has <jxm>, <jhm> *žaxm*. ABG also has the more recent loanword *zaxm* "wound".

<sup>355</sup> Note that the examples of  $ahm > \bar{a}m$  must be loanwords since hm is changed to m(m) in genuine words (cf. II 2.2.1.3).

<sup>356</sup> *wa(h)t* is found in BARKER/MENGAL 1969/I:xl, *wa(h)d* in BMC, *waht* is attested in EAL. For further variants, cf. p. 281.

<sup>357</sup> ELFENBEIN's statement about Raxšānī (1990/II:VII) that "postvocalic n is stable" thus appears questionable.

following word beginning with a vowel, and a nasalised vowel before a following consonant-initial word." The suffixes in question are obl.pl.  $-\bar{a}n$  ( $-\bar{a}$  before a consonant) and the adj.suffix  $-\bar{e}n$  (anteconsonantal variant  $-\bar{e}$ ) as well as some elements which behave similarly (cf. p. 213f.).

#### gwa-

Although ELFENBEIN 1990/II:VII notes that *gwa*- changes to *gu*- in Western Balochi, no *gu*-variant of *gwap*- "weave" or *gwaz*- "pass by" is found in WBal. sources. *guš*- "say" is in line with the general tendency of all dialects, *gwaš*- being only attested in some traditional sources (cf. p. 219). The situation with regard to *gwa*- is thus the same as in Southern Balochi.

## $ya - > \bar{e}$ -:

The following words with ya- also appear with  $\bar{e}$ - in EVM: 358

- ērāġ "arms" for NP-Turk. yarāq;
- *ēla* (otherwise *yala*) "free" (borrowed from NP *yala*).

It is not entirely clear whether this is a dialectal feature or a phenomenon limited to the two mentioned words.

<sup>358</sup> Note that words with y- cannot be genuine (cf. II 2.1.3.4.1).

The change  $ya > \bar{e}$  may or may not have some connection with the change  $ya > \bar{\iota}$  seen in Av. loanwords in NP (KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:198<sup>22</sup>).

#### 3.2.4 Iranian Balochi

The Balochi dialects of Iran are treated together here although in a historical sense, they do not constitute a separate group. However, they seem to present some common characteristics in phonology and phonetics. It is not entirely clear yet which (sub)dialects of Balochi are spoken in Iran. Descriptions of these are for the most part not available yet. In Makran, Coastal dialects are assumed to be spoken. From Khash northwards and in the whole of Ir. Sistan, including Zahidan, WBal. dialects are reported to dominate. These will only be referred to in what follows if they have been noted to differ from the SBal. and WBal. variants discussed in II 3.2.2 and 3.2.3 above.

In addition to Southern and Western Bal. varieties also found in other countries, there are two particularly characteristic dialects which are not found outside of Iran, viz. the so-called Lāšārī and Sarāwānī dialects. Sarāwānī (itself composed of several subdialects) is spoken in an area including the town of Sarawan, and is described in BARANZEHI 2003. The dialect described by BARANZEHI 2003 as being the one spoken in the town of Sarawan itself and its immediate surroundings largely corresponds to the notes in Spooner 1967, but – as will be seen below – differs from the "Sarāwānī" as defined by ELFENBEIN (e.g. 1990/II:XIIf.). In what follows, BARANZEHI 2003 will be taken as a basis unless otherwise specified. On the whole, Sarāwānī occupies an intermediate position between WBal. and SBal. (BARANZEHI 2003:77). With regard to the phonological characteristics treated below, it is nearer to the Western than to the Southern dialects, though. Some data from the Lāšārī dialect(s) may be found in Yūsefiyān 1992 and Mahmoodi Bakhtiari 2003.

<sup>359</sup> For the probable distribution, cf. the maps. The term Lāšārī was brought into use by Elfenbein (replacing the term Lōtūnī used in his earlier publications).

<sup>360</sup> For further information on Sarāwānī, cf. Jahani 2003. Spooner 1967:56 notes that the dialect borders are not a geographical question only, but also one of the nomadic vs. settled population, with e.g. the nomadic groups using  $m\bar{a}s$  "mother" etc. (WBal., cf. p. 250) and the settled population  $m\bar{a}t$  etc. (Elfenbein 1990/II:XII has  $m\bar{a}t$  etc. for the family terms which are not attested in Baranzehi 2003, apart from the loanword  $bar\bar{a}dar$  "brother"). The importance of distinguishing the "kūhī" and "šahrī" idioms is also stressed by 'Abbās Parwīn (personal communication), characteristic differences including  $\bar{u} > \bar{\iota}$  vs. preserved  $\bar{u}$ , past stems  $d\bar{\iota}t$  "saw", kut "did" vs.  $d\bar{\iota}st$ , kert, 1sg.  $\tilde{o}$  vs.  $\tilde{a}$ , use of genitive vs.  $ez\bar{a}fe$ ; this would point to a SBal. character of the former and a more WBal. character of the latter. Baranzehi 2003:79 reports that the nomads are called  $bal\bar{o}c$  and the rest  $sahr\bar{\iota}$  ("town-[people]"), while both are ethnic Baloch and speak some variant of Balochi.

<sup>361</sup> It seems that some of the sample sentences in MAHMOODI BAKHTIARI 2003 do not come from Lāšārī proper. Some characteristics of the dialects are listed in ELFENBEIN 1990/II:XIVf., not all of them

Not surprisingly, the influence of Persian on the Bal. dialects spoken in Iran has been even heavier than on the other dialects.<sup>362</sup> For Sarāwānī, BARANZEHI 2003 shows influences from NP on all levels of grammar.<sup>363</sup> In all Bal. dialects spoken in Iran, the pronunciation of the vowels seems to be that found in CNP, i.e. *e*, *o*, *ei* for /i/, /u/, /ai/, respectively (cf. p. 261). As the sources treating Ir. Balochi note them in accordance with the pronunciation, this practice will be followed here, too.

### 3.2.4.1 Consonants

### OIr. -xt

ELFENBEIN 1990/II:XII, XIV notes that *-xt* is used besides *-ht* in the past stems of verbs in velars in Sarāwānī, and that Lāšārī has *-tk*. However, SPOONER 1967:57, BARANZEHI 2003 and YŪSEFIYĀN 1992 only have *-ht*,<sup>364</sup> e.g.

- yaht: past stem of  $y\bar{a}y$  (other dialects  $\bar{a}y$ -) "come" (BARANZEHI 2003:91, YŪSEFIYĀN 1992:89);<sup>365</sup>
- doht: past stem of  $d\bar{o}\check{c}$  (SPOONER 1967:57),  $^{366}$   $d\bar{u}eht$ :  $^{367}$  past stem of  $d\bar{u}e\check{c}$  "sew" (YŪSEFIYĀN 1992:98);
- *sūeht*: past stem of *sūeč* "burn tr."; *soht*: past stem of *soč* "burn itr." (YŪSEFIYĀN 1992:100);
- $r\bar{e}ht$ : past stem of  $r\bar{e}\check{c}$  (JAHANI 2003:128),  $r\bar{\iota}eht$ : past stem of  $r\bar{\iota}e\check{c}$  "pour" (YŪSEFIYĀN 1992:98).

Sarāwānī and Lāšārī thus go with Western Balochi in this point (cf. p. 247f.) while Southern Balochi has -tk (cf. p. 240f.).

agreeing with the data from YUSEFIYĀN 1992 and MAHMOODI BAKHTIARI 2003.

<sup>362</sup> With regard to the lexicon, there are many loanwords from NP which are not found in other Bal. dialects, e.g. *barādar* "brother" and *xāhar* "sister" instead of the Balochi words used in the other dialects, and *mohtaram* "honoured" (see below) which is not found in the other sources.

<sup>363</sup> For Lāšārī, it is difficult to make a statement about other levels of grammar than phonology and phonetics since the data available to me consist at least in part of elicited material.

<sup>364 -</sup>xt is otherwise only found in Eastern Balochi, cf. p. 230. SPOONER's remark (1967:58) that  $\bar{a}[t]$  is "reduced to ah[t]" is not correct. For uh for  $\bar{o}$  as cited by SPOONER 1967:58, cf. p. 212.

<sup>365</sup> ELFENBEIN 1990/II:XV reports yātk for Lāšārī (for y-, cf. p. 260).

<sup>366</sup> SPOONER 1967:57 also has *reht* for what is *rēht* in JAHANI 2003:128. If not an error for *dōht* and *rēht*, respectively, the forms cited by Spooner correspond to *duht* (EAL: Raxšānī), EBal. *rixt* with regard to its ablaut.

<sup>367</sup> In Lāšārī,  $\bar{i}e$ ,  $\bar{u}e$  correspond to what is  $\bar{e}$ ,  $\bar{o}$  in other dialects, cf. p. 261.

#### Status of *h*

While ELFENBEIN 1990/II:XII, XIV remarks that "h is stable", SPOONER 1967:57 notes that word-initial h is often lost. Conversely, Spooner reports that h is often secondarily added, <sup>368</sup> a tendency confirmed by ELFENBEIN 1990/II:XII, XIV.

However, in YŪSEFIYĀN 1992 and BARANZEHI 2003, h appears in all positions where it is to be expected, e.g.

- from BARANZEHI 2003: *hormā* "date" (cf. p. 156), *ham-ē* "this", *hesāb* "consideration" (NP-Ar. *ḥisāb*); *xāhar* "sister" (from NP *x*<sup>w</sup>āhar), *sohr* "gold" (cf. p. 119, 211), *mohtaram* "honoured" (NP-Ar. *muhtaram*), *teh* "in";<sup>369</sup>
- from Yūsefiyān 1992: ham-īešī "this", hīed "sweat" (cf. p. 123), gohār "sister" (cf. p. 219), bohā "price" (cf. p. 100), wahd "time" (cf. p. 281), kūeh "mountain" (cf. p. 81);

and I have not seen an example of secondary h in Yūsefiyān 1992 and Baranzehi  $2003.^{370}$ 

The preservation of h in Sarāwānī and Lāšārī is a SBal. rather than a WBal. feature (cf. p. 241f., 248).

For *h* as vowel-separating consonant, see below.

## Gemination

There is no case of gemination of consonants in BARANZEHI 2003. SPOONER 1967:57 remarks that "any final consonants (but not clusters) may apparently be doubled at will, except when followed by a word beginning with a consonant". Since SPOONER does not note gemination in his glossary, it is possible that there are rules for gemination also in this dialect (cf. II 1.1.1).

<sup>368</sup> SPOONER 1967:57 concludes that therefore h has no phonemic status; this need not be a necessary consequence, though.

<sup>369</sup> The Sarāwānī preposition is probably identical with tah "interior", used as a postposition: x-(gen.) +  $tah\bar{a}$  (obl. of tah) "in (lit.: in the interior of) x" in the other dialects and NP tah "bottom"; its etymology does not appear to be clear. The issue of Sarāwānī prepositions vs. pre- and postpositions of the other dialects is treated in BARANZEHI 2003:87f.

<sup>370</sup> ELFENBEIN 1990/II:XV reports haškun- / haškut "hear" (cf. p. 236) for Lāšārī.

In YŪSEFIYĀN 1992, gemination occurs in words which are also found with gemination in other dialects, e.g. *haḍḍ* "bone" (cf. p. 272), *čukk*<sup>371</sup> "child", *mess* "urine" (cf. p. 137). There are also additional cases of gemination. It seems that all those which do not occur in other dialects involve gemination after  $\bar{\imath}/\bar{\imath}e$ ,  $\bar{\imath}e$ , recalling a phenomenon observed in SHG (cf. p. 242), e.g.  $\check{c}\bar{\imath}ppok$  "chicken" ( $\check{c}\bar{\imath}ppuk^{372}$  in SHG),  $s\bar{\imath}nna^{373}$  "breast", *nebīss*- "write" (cf. p. 234),  $r\bar{\imath}e\check{s}\check{s}^{374}$  "beard",  $d\bar{\imath}e$  "smoke" (otherwise  $d\bar{\imath}e$ , cf. p. 142),  $p\bar{\imath}ess$ - /  $p\bar{\imath}ess$ - "write" (cf. p. 234). More data are needed to compare the range of gemination with Western and Southern Balochi.

## Other phenomena

The data of BARANZEHI 2003 confirm ELFENBEIN's statement (1990/II:XII) that y is used as vowel separator in Sarāwānī, e.g.

- $hod\bar{a}$ -y- $e\check{s}$ <sup>376</sup> (God-y-pron.suff.2pl.) "[may] God [give] you (pl.) ..." (BARANZEHI 2003:84);
- $nesta-y-\tilde{e}^{377}$  (sit(perf.)-y-1pl.) "we are sitting" (BARANZEHI 2003:88);
- kas-ē-y-ei (person-indef.-y-cop.2sg.) "you are a (...) person" (BARANZEHI 2003:84).

However, h is used as well:

- $na-h-at-\tilde{e}$  (neg.-h-cop.past-1pl.) "we have not been" (BARANZEHI 2003:89);
- $\bar{a}h-\bar{t}$  (dem.pron.obl.) "that" (JAHANI 2003:121);
- rah-īn "I go" (JAHANI 2003:122).

<sup>371</sup> MORGENSTIERNE 1948:283 and GILBERTSON 1925/I:48 assume some connection with Ur.  $\check{c}^h \bar{o} k r \bar{a}$ , Si.  $\check{c}^h \bar{o} k a r u$  "boy", but the case is not completely clear. There might be a relationship to  $\check{c} \bar{u} \check{c} a g$  "child, baby; tiny",  $\check{c} \bar{u} \check{c} \bar{u} k$ ,  $\check{c} u k \bar{\iota}$  "little finger" (cf. p. 293).

<sup>372</sup> The etymology of this word is not known to me. It seems possible that onomatopoetical phenomena might be involved.

<sup>373</sup>  $s\bar{\imath}na(g)$  has been borrowed from NP (GEIGER 1891:444), but  $s\bar{e}nag$  might be genuine. For cognates and further discussion of MP  $s\bar{e}nag$ , cf. GIPPERT 1993/I:243.

<sup>374</sup> If this is not an error ( $r\bar{\imath}e\check{s}\check{s}$  would be the only example with gemination after  $\bar{\imath}e$ ) it shows Bal. / $r\bar{e}\check{s}$ /, which would agree with some cognates cited by MORGENSTIERNE 1927:107. The other Bal. sources have  $r\bar{\imath}\check{s}$  which may be a form showing raising of the vowel or a borrowing from NP (thus GEIGER 1891:458), since Tajiki and Dari have likewise  $r\bar{\imath}\check{s}$ . Av.  $ra\bar{e}\check{s}a$ - does not mean "beard" as HORN 1893:142 assumes. Thus, the etymology of  $r\bar{\imath}\check{s}$  is not clear (HÜBSCHMANN 1985:68).

<sup>375</sup> This word (not found in other Bal. sources) is likely to have been borrowed from NP  $p\bar{u}s$ -/ $p\bar{u}s\bar{u}d$ .

<sup>376</sup> hodā (other dialects hudā) has been borrowed from NP xudā (GEIGER 1891:450), cf. p. 66.

<sup>377</sup> The past stem is *ništ* in other dialects (cf. p. 96).

Conversely, y is found as vowel separator in Yūsefiyān 1992 while Elfenbein 1990/II:XIV states that h is used in Lāšārī.

- man wat āyī-y-om dī<sup>378</sup> "I myself saw him/her" (YŪSEFIYĀN 1992:52);
- ta gošna-y-at-ī "you were hungry" (YŪSEFIYĀN 1992:69).

This feature is closer again (although still different) to the situation found in WBal. than to that of Southern Balochi.

In Lāšārī, a secondary y is often found prefixed to word-inital  $\tilde{a}$ - in inherited as well as in borrowed words, e.g.

• (y)āp "water" (cf. p. 77), (y)āteš "fire" (borrowed fom CNP āteš), yāšnā "known" (from NP āšnā), yāy- / yaht "come" (all from Yūsefiyān 1992), yaps / asp<sup>379</sup> "horse" (Pākzād Yūsefiyān, personal communication).

It thus seems that the y- noted by ELFENBEIN 1990/II:XIIff. for the verbs  $y\bar{a}r$ - "bring" and  $y\bar{a}y$ - "come" is in fact not a feature of verbal morphology, but a phonological process of more general nature. The prefixing of y- seems to be optional in some words, and there are words which seem not to take it at all (e.g. the pronoun  $\bar{a}$ - "that"); the conditions of its appearance thus remain to be investigated.

### **3.2.4.2** Vowels

### **Vowel shortening**

Some word-final vowels are shortened: the indefinite article  $-\bar{e}$  is often pronounced -e (BARANZEHI 2003:83), and the obl.sg. ends in -a (SPOONER 1967:58, BARANZEHI 2003:81) as it does in Afghan Raxšānī, but not in other WBal. variants (cf. p. 251).

<sup>378</sup>  $ay\bar{\imath}$  is certainly a misprint for  $\bar{a}y\bar{\imath}$  correctly noted otherwise. The agent is marked twice here, by the full pronoun man and the suffix -om.  $\bar{a}y\bar{\imath}$  is equivalent to the variant  $\bar{a}h\bar{\imath}$  quoted above.

<sup>379</sup> For the metathesis, cf. p. 177.

<sup>380</sup> In Sarāwānī, the two verbs indeed seem to be the only examples of this phenomenon which are found. Maybe there is some connection with the loss of word-initial *y*- seen in loanwords, cf. II 3.3.1.7.2.

### Short high vowels

The pronunciation of i and u tends towards e and o in all Balochi dialects spoken in Iran (not only Sarāwānī and Lāšārī), reflecting the CNP pronunciation (SPOONER 1967:58, BARANZEHI 2003:81, YŪSEFIYĀN 1992). The SBal. and WBal. dialects spoken in Iran differ in this respect from the corresponding dialects spoken across the Pakistani or Afghan border, with the pronunciation from CNP being an areal feature.

## **Diphthongs**

The diphthong ai of other dialects is pronounced ei (SPOONER 1967:58, BARANZEHI 2003:81). According to SPOONER 1967:58, ei,  $\bar{e}$  and  $\bar{\iota}$  are difficult to differentiate, and  $\bar{\iota}$  and  $\bar{\iota}$  fall together, which would mean that raising (cf. p. 199f.) is very marked in the variant studied by Spooner. However, there is no example of raising in BARANZEHI 2003.

The most striking feature of Lāšārī is the diphthongisation of what is  $\bar{e}$ ,  $\bar{o}$  in the other dialects to  $\bar{i}e$ ,  $\bar{u}e$ , respectively.<sup>383</sup> The data in YūSEFIYĀN 1992 point to a consistent diphthongisation in all positions of the word, e.g.

- $\bar{\imath}$ er "down" (vs.  $\bar{e}$ r of other dialects, cf. p. 119, 199),  $h\bar{\imath}$ ed "sweat" (vs.  $h\bar{e}$ d),  $r\bar{\imath}$ eč-"pour" (vs.  $r\bar{e}$ č-),  $ham\bar{\imath}$ eš $\bar{\imath}$  (vs.  $\bar{e}$ š-; all cf. p. 258), adj.suffix - $\bar{\imath}$ en (vs. - $\bar{e}$ n), indef. article - $\bar{\imath}$ e (vs. - $\bar{e}$ );
- $\bar{u}ed\bar{a}n$  "there" (vs.  $\bar{o}d\bar{a}$ , cf. p. 101),  $d\bar{u}e\check{c}$  "sew" (vs.  $d\bar{o}\check{c}$ -),  $k\bar{u}eh$  "mountain" (vs.  $k\bar{o}h$ , cf. p. 257, 258, respectively),  $br\bar{a}t\bar{u}e$  "step-brother" (vs.  $br\bar{a}t\bar{o}$ , cf. p. 307),  $r\bar{u}e$  "day" (vs.  $r\bar{o}$ , cf. p. 137).

ELFENBEIN 1990/II:XII, XIV maintains that the diphthongisation product of  $\bar{o}$  is  $\bar{u}o$ , <sup>384</sup> which is not confirmed by the data in YūSEFIYĀN 1992, MAHMOODI BAKHTIARI 2003 and my own observation, and that the diphthongisation also occurs in Sarāwānī, but there is no such example in SPOONER 1967 and BARANZEHI 2003.

<sup>381</sup> In SPOONER 1967, the vowel e, i.e. /i/, is noted varyingly as i or e, the reasons or conditions for which remain unclear (cf. also ROSSI 1979a:192<sup>165</sup>, 210).

<sup>382</sup> This is why SPOONER 1967 has  $\langle u \rangle$  (sic) for  $\bar{u}$  and  $\bar{o}$ , and  $\langle o \rangle$  for  $\langle u \rangle$ .

<sup>383</sup> This change is also found in some of the sentences in MAHMOODI BAKHTIARI 2003. Other sentences do not show this phenomenon, though, and may be considered as coming from a different dialect.

<sup>384</sup> If so, the process would be the same as the one seen in Bashkardi (ELFENBEIN 1990/II:XIV).

#### Palatalisation and labialisation

The data found in Yūsefiyān 1992 and BARANZEHI 2003 show some cases of e for expected a:

• part.perf. -eg for otherwise -ag (YŪSEFIYĀN 1992), teh for otherwise tah "in" (BARANZEHI 2003, cf. p. 258), 3pl. -ent vs. -ant of other dialects (both sources, cf. p. 263). 385

This might indicate that e and a are phonetically not too far apart. The change might be facilitated by the variation e / a observed in a considerable number of words in CNP (e.g. CNP  $\bar{a}te\check{s}$ ,  $\bar{a}ta\check{s}$  "fire").

On the other hand, assimilation of a to a preceding labial is seen in e.g. mon "I" (BARANZEHI 2003) vs. man of the other dialects,  $boh\bar{a}$  "price" (YŪSEFIYĀN 1992:102) vs.  $bah\bar{a}$  otherwise,  $Bomp\bar{u}r$  (local pronunciation) vs.  $Bamp\bar{u}r$  (official name of a town in Iranian Balochistan).

The change of  $\bar{u} > \bar{\iota}$  does not occur in the Lāšārī and Sarāwānī data,<sup>387</sup> which is nearer to Western than to Southern Balochi usage (cf. p. 243, 252). The change to  $\bar{u}$  posited by Elfenbein 1990/II:XII for Sarāwānī is not noted in Spooner 1967 and Baranzehi 2003.

<sup>385</sup> These dialects thus show *-ent* for the 3pl., *-et* (BARANZEHI 2003) / *-e* (YŪSEFIYĀN 1992) for the 3sg., and *o* (BARANZEHI 2003) / *en(t)* (YŪSEFIYĀN 1992:69) for the 3sg.cop. while the other dialects have 3pl. *-ant*, 3sg. *-īt* and 3sg.cop. *int*, *ẽ*.

<sup>386</sup> It is not clear whether the first member is identical to the place-name *Bam* (town in Kirman province), which is *Bamm* in older sources (Pavel Lurje, personal communication). If not, a possible etymology of *Bam*° in *Bampūr* would be a connection with MP *wan* "tree, trunk" (due to the presence of a considerable number of trees and other plants as compared to other regions of Balochistan) with the NP change of *wa- > ba* and an assimilation of \*np > *mp*, but not the labialisation of the vowel seen in NP *bun* "trunk, root" (Pavel Lurje, personal communication). On the other hand, it does not seem impossible either that *Bom*° is indeed the original variant, "assimilated" to *Bam*° in official use, due to the much greater importance of the town *Bam*. If so, *Bom*° might be explained as (NP, Bal.) *bun* "fundament" (cf. p. 299) and hint to the Sassanian castle there. For the second member, cf. p. 212.

<sup>387</sup> But cf. the note on p. 256 about the "kūhī" variant of Iranian Balochi.

### 3.2.4.3 Vowels + consonants

### Nasalisation of vowels

Nasalisation of vowels is very common in Sarāwānī, all long and short vowels also occurring in nasalised variants (BARANZEHI 2003:81). Word-final vowel + n of a number of endings and suffixes appears as -Vn before vowel, and - $\tilde{V}$  before a consonant (BARANZEHI 2003:81ff.)<sup>388</sup> and before a pause (SPOONER 1967:58). The same is true for -*ent* (cf. p. 262) of the 3pl.:<sup>389</sup>

	/_V	/_C
obl.pl.	-ān	-ā̃
adj.suffix	-ēn	-ē̃
pron.suffix: <sup>390</sup> 1sg.	-on	-õ
1pl.	-en	- $ ilde{e}$
pronoun 1sg.	mon	mõ
verbal endings = copula pres. <sup>391</sup> 1sg. 1pl. 3pl.	(-)ān (-)ēn (-)ent	$(-)\tilde{a}$ $(-)\tilde{e}$ $(-)\tilde{e}$
irrealis suffix	-ēn	-ē
pres.part.	-ān	-ā

In addition, the verbal ending of the 2pl.  $-\bar{e}t^{392}$  varies with  $-\bar{e}$  under the same conditions as nasalisation.

<sup>388</sup> This distribution is not made explicit in BARANZEHI 2003, but can be concluded from the data.

<sup>389</sup> As at least one of these endings occurs in about every sentence, ELFENBEIN's statement (1990/II:XII) that "nasalisation (...) is sporadic" is misleading, although the note that it is "mainly confined to" certain endings is basically correct.

<sup>390</sup> Most other Balochi dialects have pronominal suffixes for the 3rd persons only.

<sup>391</sup> In other dialects, the verbal endings are not necessarily identical with the copula present.

<sup>392</sup> Other dialects have  $-\bar{e}$  (FARRELL 1990) or -it (BARKER/MENGAL and other Raxšānī sources).

BARANZEHI 2003 also has examples of nasalisation in regular words, e.g.  $n\tilde{u}$  "now" (cf. p. 202),  $g\tilde{o}$  "with" (cf. p. 181, 199, 214),  $k\tilde{a}t$  "horn" (cf. Ur.  $k\bar{a}nt\bar{a}$  "sting, thorn etc."), pointing to a situation quite parallel to that described in BARKER/MENGAL 1969 (cf. p. 213f., 254).

Vn is pronounced as such when followed by a suffix with initial vowel in all Bal. dialects of Iran, but when there is no such suffix, the degree of nasalisation is stronger in Sarawan than in Zahidan and Khash (Carina Jahani, personal communication).

In Lāšārī, a nasal pronunciation of vowels followed by a nasal is likewise present, but always on a subphonemic level (Pākzād Yūsefiyān, personal communication).

## gwa-

According to Elfenbein 1990/II:XII, XIV gwa- is preferred in Sarāwānī and Lāšārī. Unfortunately, there are no relevant examples in Spooner 1967, Baranzehi 2003 and Yūsefiyān 2003 to prove this right or wrong. Even  $gu\check{s}$ -  $/gwa\check{s}$ - "say" is not found, the verb being replaced by a NP loanword at least in part, thence goy- (sic) /gopt (NP  $g\bar{o}y$ -, CNP  $g\bar{u}y$ - /guft) in Yūsefiyān 1992:105<sup>393</sup> and gap kanag "to talk" in Spooner 1967:61.

<sup>393</sup> In BARANZEHI 2003, only the past stem gopt is found.

### 3.3 Phenomena occurring in loanwords

This chapter treats changes or substitutions of sounds which seem to occur specifically in loanwords. It is possible that some of the phenomena treated here are due to the language/dialect the relevant words have been borrowed from and thus not to be ascribed to Balochi.

#### 3.3.1 Consonants

Regular substitutions of sounds foreign to the Bal. phonemic system are treated in II 1.2. In addition, a number of occasional changes are found in loanwords.

#### 3.3.1.1 Metatheses

In addition to metatheses found in genuine words (cf. II 3.1.1.2) or in specific dialects (cf. II 3.2.1.1.3, 3.2.2.1), certain sorts of metatheses seem to be found exclusively in loanwords. Similar metatheses have been observed in spoken Dari (e.g. *dayrā* "river" for NP *daryā*, *tilf* "child" for NP-Ar. *tifl*, *rusxat* "holiday" for NP-Ar. *ruxṣat*, *pāntus* < \*pātnus for Russian *podnós* "tray", DOROFEEVA 1960:17). It is possible that some of the words mentioned below have been borrowed from Dari in their metathesised form.

The consonant clusters which undergo metathesis are not systematically excluded by Bal. phonotactics, and variants of the same words without metathesis do occur.

## Reordering of consonant clusters according to decreasing degree of sonority

- *alg*, *alg* (both EAL 3) "sense, intelligence" is a metathesised variant of *agl* (for which cf. p. 267) which renders NP-Ar. <sup>c</sup>*aql*;
- *kulp, kulf* (ABG, BMC, EAL, ROSSI 1979:219) "lock (on a door)"<sup>394</sup> shows a metathesis vs. *kubl* etc. (NP-Ar. *qufl*, see below) which is also shared by Br. and Psht. *kulf*, Ur. *kalaf* (ROSSI 1979:219) as well as spoken Dari and Tajiki (Lutz Rzehak, personal communication);
- suhb (Mockler 1877, EAL, SHG), suhβ (DTB)<sup>395</sup> for NP-Ar. subh "morning".

<sup>394</sup> Elfenbein's definition (1990/II:80) of kulp as "lock of hair" is obviously an error. For further variants, cf. p. 207.

<sup>395</sup> For further variants, cf. p. 211.

A similar development may take place in word-internal position:

- DTB aršafī for (SHG) ašrapī from NP ašrafī (a coin);
- *halma* (SHG), *halmā*<sup>396</sup> (ABG) occurs besides *ḥamlā* (ABG) "attack" (NP-Ar. *hamla*) and shows the same phenomenon also in word-internal position;
- the only word with this metathesis which may be genuine is *hidrik* (GEIGER 1891:422, EAL), *idrik* (EAL, SHG) "squirrel" > *hirdik* (DTB, GEIGER 1891:422, EAL), *irdik* (SHG). The etymology is not known, so the direction of the metathesis is not clear. However, it seems more probable that (*h*)*idrik* changed to (*h*)*irdik* than vice-versa.

### Other metatheses

Conversely, a change of -rK > Kr may be seen in:

- $babr-\bar{\iota}-\bar{e}n$  "snow-white" (MORGENSTIERNE 1932:41) from barp "snow" (NP loanword; for Tr > Dr, cf. p. 267); the metathesis has the effect of returning to the original order of consonants (Av. vafra-);
- *čakar* (ABG) "circle" might be a metathesised form from *čark* "wheel" (NP loanword, cf. II 2.2.1.4.2), but a borrowing from Ur. *čak(a)r* "wheel, circuit" is at least equally likely.

Further metatheses of word-internal consonant clusters are

- EVM agdar (also adga, for the vowels, cf. p. 283) "other", gidar (SOKOLOV 1956:72) "other" besides (NP) digar;
- EAL alwād for (BMC, EAL, SHG) aulād "offspring, child (sic)" (NP-Ar. aulād);
- jagdal (DTB), jagdāl (EAL) for jadgāl (EAL), jadgāl (SHG) "Jaṭṭ" (ethnolinguistic group in Pakistan).<sup>397</sup>

Distant metatheses of consonants are seen e.g. in:

- tarūn (SHG, EAL) "oven" besides tanūr; 398
- *nyām* "middle" has been borrowed from NP *miyān* (HÜBSCHMANN 1890:559, cf. p. 232f.), the metathesis may imply a popular etymology involving  $n\bar{e}m(ag)$  "half";

<sup>396</sup> For the lengthening of word-final -a, cf. p. 189ff.

<sup>397</sup> For further discussion of this word, cf. p. 187, 268.

<sup>398</sup> This case of metathesis has been noted by BUDDRUSS 1974:33 who seems to assume that the word has been borrowed from NP *tanūr* (this form is also found in Balochi). Av. *tanūra*- (hapax) has been borrowed from a Semitic language according to HÜBSCHMANN 1897:155. The (NP and Urdu) variant *tandūr* is also used in Balochi.

• *dušmān* "insult" (EVM, SPOONER 1967:67, EAL) might show a metathesis vs. NP *dušnām* "abuse" (BUDDRUSS 1974:33), maybe motivated by *dušman*, *dužmin* "enemy". Alternatively, *dušmān* may be connected to NP *bahnām*, MP *awāhmān*, Prth. *awānmān* "so-and-so" etc. These have been interpreted (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1990) as showing °\*nmānam, acc. of a compound form of "name", so *dušmān* may be the original form while NP *dušnām* has been adjusted to *nām* "name". 399

In the most recent layer of loanwords, metatheses of diverse sorts are met with. FARRELL 1990, 2003:180 notes a number of Europ. loanwords from Karachi Balochi which have been adjusted to Bal. word structure by way of metatheses:

• pāṭpōs "passport", palamṭī "penalty" (football), čīmag < čīgam "chewing gum", singal "signal" (traffic lights), mēlōn < mēnōl "manhole" (all FARRELL 2003:180), pilsin < pinsil "pencil" (FBB).

### 3.3.1.2 Assimilations

Apart from assimilation processes noted in genuine words (cf. II 3.1.1.3), loanwords show some more changes which may be classified as assimilations.

## CBal. -TL# > -DL#:

In a couple of examples, stops are voiced before a word-final liquid:

- *agl* (EAL, SHG) might either be an assimilated variant of *akl*<sup>400</sup> "intelligence" (NP-Ar. <sup>c</sup>aql) or a borrowing from the CNP pronunciation *agl*, <sup>401</sup> but in the light of the following examples, the former interpretation seems more likely;
- babrīēn "snowwhite" < \*bapr- (cf. p. 266), cf. barp "snow";
- pigr (BMC, EAL, SHG) vs. pikr "thought" (NP-Ar. fikr; cf. also p. 192);
- *zigr* (BMC, SHG) vs. *zikr* (ABG, EAL) "memory; chanting of religious formula" (NP-Ar. *zikr*);
- *šugr* (EVM, SHG) vs. *šukr*<sup>402</sup> "thanks" (NP-Ar. *šukr*) and its derivative *šugrāna*, *šugrānō* (EAL, SHG) vs. *šukrān* (EAL) "Mulla's fee, sacrifice";
- kubl (EAL, SHG) vs. kulp etc. "lock" (cf. p. 207, 265) for NP-Ar. qufl.

<sup>399</sup> ELFENBEIN's lemma (1990/II:42) "dušmān 'enemy, foe'" is misleading; there seems to be no evidence that dušmān means "enemy".

<sup>400</sup> For the variant 'aqqal, cf. p. 207, for the metathesised form alg, cf. p. 265.

<sup>401</sup> For the rendering of NP g, cf. p. 64.

<sup>402</sup> For the variants šukur, šukar, cf. p. 207.

#### Other assimilations:

- $\bar{a}zm\bar{a}n$  (ABG, BMC, EAL, SHG) besides  $\bar{a}sm\bar{a}n$  (BMC, EVM, FBB, EAL, SHG) "sky" (cf. also p. 186, 190) shows an assimilation of the -s-, the hypercorrect reversal of the same is seen in  $\bar{a}sm\bar{a}nak(k)$  for  $\bar{a}zm\bar{a}nak(k)$  "story" (cf. p. 186);
- pallūnk (EAL) "ribs" vs. pahlūg etc. (cf. p. 163f., 253);
- jadgāl (EAL), jadgāl (SHG) are derived from jatgāl "Jatt" (ethnolinguistic group in Pakistan, for further modifications, cf. p. 187, 266);
- paigammar "prophet" (Lutz Rzehak, personal communication) vs. paigam-bar (EAL, GCD; NP loanword) shows a total assimilation;
- a distant assimilation is seen in  $n\bar{\imath}m\bar{o}n$  (DTB),  $n\bar{\imath}m\bar{u}$  (GCD) vs.  $l\bar{\imath}m\bar{u}$  (DTB, GCD), Ur.  $l\bar{\imath}m\bar{u}$ , NP  $l\bar{\imath}m\bar{u}(n)$  "lemon", perhaps under the influence of Ur.  $n\bar{\imath}mb\bar{u}$ ,  $n\bar{\imath}b\bar{u}$ ,  $nimb\bar{u}$ .

## 3.3.1.3 Dissimilations

Some cases of dissimilation are also found:

- $n\bar{\imath}wag^{404}$  "fruit" vs. NP  $m\bar{e}wa;^{405}$
- $k\bar{a}n\bar{u}d$  (BMC, EAL),  $q\bar{a}n\bar{u}d$  (ABG),  $^{406}$   $k\bar{a}n\bar{u}t$  (EAL) "law" for NP  $q\bar{a}n\bar{u}n^{407}$  (borrowed from Greek  $\varkappa\alpha\nu\acute{o}\nu$ -) shows a dissimilation of the second n.

## 3.3.1.4 Devoicing of consonants

There is a widespread, but optional devoicing of word-final stops and fricatives in loanwords (cf. KORN 2001:3<sup>19</sup>). Some of the more remarkable examples include:<sup>408</sup>

<sup>403</sup> līmbō (BMC, EAL), līmbū (EAL, SHG) is another mixture of the above-mentioned forms.

<sup>404</sup> The existence of  $n\bar{t}wag$  doubted by GEIGER 1891:444 is confirmed by SHG, EAL, BMC, NAWATA 1981:37. The variant  $n\bar{e}wag$  is only found in EAL and it is questionable whether it is attested. For  $\bar{e} > \bar{t}$ , cf. II 3.1.2.3.2, for SHG  $n\bar{t}bag$ , cf. p. 228.

<sup>405</sup> NP  $m\bar{e}wa$  comes from \*meq < \*maog (cf. Prth.  $mi\gamma\delta(ag)$ ) which is somehow related to Hebrew  $migd\bar{a}$ , Syriac  $ma\gamma d\bar{a}$ ; it is not clear whether it is a Semitic loanword in Iranian or vice-versa (HENNING 1947:56).

<sup>406</sup> The derivations  $k\bar{a}n\bar{u}d\bar{t}$  "legal" (BMC, EAL) and  $k\bar{a}n\bar{u}d$ -sāz "lawmaking" (BMC) are also found.

<sup>407</sup> NP qānūn is found in kānūn-gō (ABG, BMC) "clerk".

<sup>408</sup> ELFENBEIN 1963:365 notes that the (WBal.) dialect Panjgūrī "tends to unvoice final stops", for which he only gives the example *mart* "man" vs. *mard* of other dialects. *mard* might, however, have been borrowed from NP twice, once in the NP form and once with the common devoicing of the final consonant. *mart* would be the genuine Bal. form of the word (cf. OInd. *márta-*), so it is not

### -VD# > -VT#:

- $\bar{a}dam\bar{z}\bar{a}t$  (EVM, EAL),  $\bar{a}dam-z\bar{a}t$  (SHG),  $\bar{a}dam-z\bar{a}d$  (SHG) "human (being)" (NP  $\bar{a}dam(\bar{\imath})-z\bar{a}d$ , lit.: "man-born");
- *ispīt* "speed" (Engl. *speed*, FARRELL 2003:179);
- *ištāp* "hurry" (NP *šitāb*, cf. p. 152);
- $\bar{o}m\bar{e}t$  (BMC, EVM, EAL),  $um\bar{e}t$  (SHG),  $\bar{o}m\bar{t}t/\bar{u}m\bar{t}t$  (EAL),  $umm\bar{e}d$  (ABG, SHG) "hope" (NP  $\bar{o}m\bar{e}d$ ,  $\bar{u}m\bar{t}d$ , MP  $umm\bar{e}d$ , GEIGER 1891:462);
- zyāt (ABG, EAL, SHG) "much, more" (NP-Ar. ziyād);
- kabāt (FBB, SHG) "cupboard" (Engl. cupboard, cf. p. 67);
- *kilīt* "key" (NP *kilīd*, cf. p. 237);
- $mas jit^{409}$  "mosque" (NP-Ar. mas jid);
- $m\bar{e}b\bar{a}\bar{t}t$  (EVM),  $b\bar{a}id$  (cf. p. 283) "it is necessary" (NP  $(m\bar{e}-)b\bar{a}yad)$ ;
- yāt (ABG, BMC, EAL, SHG), yād (SHG) "memory" (NP yād, cf. p. 105).

### -VCD# > -VCT#:

- *šaht*, *šahd* (cf. p. 207, 253) "honey" (NP-Ar. *šahd*);
- harč (ABG, BMC, EAL), xarč (ABG, EAL), harž (SHG) "costs". 410

The variants  $\bar{a}dam$ - $z\bar{a}d$ ,  $umm\bar{e}d$ ,  $\check{s}ahd$ ,  $har\check{j}$  and  $y\bar{a}d$  as well as numerous further loanwords show that the devoicing is an optional change, probably characteristic of rather recent loanwords.

Inherited Bal. words of similar structure show that the devoicing indeed operates only in loanwords, e.g.

hēd "sweat" (cf. p. 123), pād "foot" (cf. p. 79), šurd "mild" (cf. p. 97), zird "heart" (cf. p. 97).

The above said implies that there are two groups of words where it is impossible to determine whether they are genuine or NP loanwords (cf. I 1.2.1), the first group being those cases where the Bal. sound laws produce the same result as the Pers. ones (e.g.  $b\bar{a}r$  "load", bar- "carry", purs- "ask",  $pu\bar{s}t$  "back", jau "barley",  $jw\bar{a}n$  "young, good",  $d\bar{a}n$  "grain",  $dr\bar{o}g$  "lie", sar "head",  $n\bar{e}m$  "half", ham "also", cf. also GEIGER

impossible that Panj̃gūrī has preserved something which the other dialects have replaced by the loanword. Devoicing does not seem to be a feature of some specific Bal. dialect(s), though.

<sup>409</sup> This form is only found in NAWATA 1981:38. All other sources have *masīt* which is a loanword from an Ind. language (ROSSI 1979:321).

<sup>410</sup> From NP-Ar. xarj. For the etymology of this word, cf. HENNING 1935.

1891:444).<sup>411</sup> The second group consists of Bal. words which differ from their NP cognate only in that the final consonant is voiceless and the NP one voiced. Examples from the second group are:<sup>412</sup>

- $\bar{a}rt$  "flour" may be genuine (cf. p. 189) or from NP  $\bar{a}rd$ ;
- $\bar{a}z\bar{a}t$  "free" may be genuine (Av.  $\bar{a}z\bar{a}ta$ -, Prth.  $\bar{a}z\bar{a}d$ ) or from NP  $\bar{a}z\bar{a}d$  (NWIr. form);
- burt (past stem of bar- "carry") may be genuine (PIr. \*brta-, cf. p. 147) or from NP burd:
- $d\bar{a}t$  (past stem of day- etc. "give") may be genuine (Av.  $d\bar{a}ta$ -, Prth.  $d\bar{a}d$ ) or from NP  $d\bar{a}d$ ;
- $d\bar{u}t$  "smoke" may be genuine or from NP  $d\bar{u}d$  (cf. p. 142);
- *šut* (past stem of *raw*-<sup>414</sup> "go") may be genuine (YAv. *šuta*-, Prth. *šud*) or from NP *šud* (cf. p. 128);
- gurk "wolf" may be genuine (PIIr. \*urka-, cf. p. 144) or from NP gurg;
- *mark* "death" may be genuine (YAv. *mahrka*-, i.e. PIr. \*márka-(HOFFMANN/FORSMAN 1996:92) or from NP *marg* (GEIGER 1891:444);<sup>415</sup>
- $n\bar{o}k$  "new" may be genuine or from MP  $n\bar{o}g$  (cf. p. 101).

Since Dari shows devoicing of final consonants, too (DOROFEEVA 1960:17, ELFENBEIN 1989:640), this tendency may have come from Dari (cf. also Psht. *ziyāt* "more"). Some words might have been borrowed from Dari and therefore would not show a Bal. devoicing process. However, the evidence does not suggest that all words from the group above have been borrowed precisely from the Persian of Afghanistan.

<sup>411</sup> For more information about the examples, cf. the index (V 2).

<sup>412</sup> A further example is  $r\bar{o}t$  "river" (OP rautah-, OInd.  $sr\acute{o}tas$ -, Prth.  $r\bar{o}d$ ) which is only cited by GEIGER 1890:144 from a British Museum manuscript and by EAL. Otherwise, the surely borrowed  $r\bar{o}d$  is used.  $r\bar{o}\delta$  (DTB) is the regular EBal. variant of  $r\bar{o}d$ ; GEIGER's (1890:144) interpretation as a cognate of OInd.  $r\acute{o}d^has$ - "dam, bank" is not necessary. If  $r\bar{o}t$  exists and is not to be interpreted as a borrowing, it shows that OIr. hr- is reduced to r- as in MP and Parthian.

<sup>413</sup> The present stems *day*- (BMC, SHG, EAL: Raxšānī, Coastal dialects, NAWATA 1981:), *dah*- (EAL: Lāšārī), *da*- (EVM, EAL: Raxšānī, Sarāwānī, Coastal dialects, Kēčī) must have been borrowed from Persian (note that *day*- shows the result expected for NP from OIr. *dadā*-, while NP has the NWIr. variant *dah*- occuring also in Parthian), the variants *dēy*- (ABG, FBB), *dē*- (DTB, EAL: Kēčī, EBal.), *dī*- (EAL: Kēčī, EBal.) may also have been borrowed from Ur. *dē*-nā, cf. KORN 2001:3<sup>13</sup>. It is also possible that the variation of stems is (to some extent at least) modelled on that of *bay*- "become" (for which cf. p. 78).

<sup>414</sup> This present stem must have been borrowed anyway, cf. p. 128.

<sup>415</sup> The fact that Parthian has *murt* "death" while MP has no *murt*, but only *marg* (cf. KORN, frthc. 4) might favour the interpretation of Bal. *mark* as NP loanword.

One motivation for the devoicing in loanwords might be the fact that Balochi has voiceless consonants in cases where other languages, notably NP and MP, have voiced ones, e.g. Bal. *māt* "mother", *pit* "father" vs. MP *mād*, *pid*, respectively. If one assumes argumenti causa that e.g. *gurk* "wolf" is genuine Balochi, speakers might note that NP has *gurg* and conclude that "the Persians have -*g* where we say -*k*". When borrowing e.g. NP *marg* "death" (assuming argumenti causa that it is a loanword), they might want to assimilate the word to Bal. speech habits by devoicing the word-final consonant to give *mark*. The Bal. tendency of strengthening word-final consonants can also be seen in the secondary gemination of word-final consonants in loanwords (cf. II 3.3.1.5).

### 3.3.1.5 Gemination of consonants

There is a considerable number of cases of gemination (mainly of word-final consonants) in loanwords. <sup>417</sup> Just like in the case of gemination in inherited words, the extent of gemination depends on the dialect (or author of a given work). BMC is the source with most instances of gemination, so in what follows the examples are from BMC unless otherwise indicated. As in the case of genuine words, geminates in loanwords are particularly common in monosyllables and only occur after short vowels. <sup>418</sup> It goes without saying that when a word with geminate is borrowed, the geminated consonants are often taken over from the original.

Gemination occurs in loanwords from all languages, e.g. (to give but a few examples)

- NP(-Ar.): hukūmatt<sup>419</sup> "government", bačakk<sup>420</sup> "son" (NP bačča);
- Turkic: uluss<sup>421</sup> (BMC, EAL) "people", bairakk<sup>422</sup> "flag";
- European: bass<sup>423</sup> "bus", tikatt (BMC, EAL) "ticket".

<sup>416</sup> Cf. FARRELL's remark (2003:180) about devoicing of consonants in some loanwords "perhaps echoing an older preference in Balochi for preserving voiceless final stops".

<sup>417</sup> For gemination in genuine words, cf. II 1.1.1, 3.1.1.1, for gemination specific to certain dialects or certain authors, cf. II 3.2.2.1, 3.2.3.1, 3.2.4.1.

<sup>418</sup> An exception are SHG and the Lāšārī dialect which show gemination after some long vowels (cf. II 3.2.2.1, 3.2.4.1).

<sup>419</sup> From NP-Ar. hukūmat. EAL has hukūmat.

<sup>420</sup> EVM has *bačak*, SHG *bačikk*, FBB *bačik*. EAL has *baččak* which is probably a mixture with *bačč* (see below). For the etymology, cf. p. 100. For suffixal -*ik*(*k*), cf. II 2.4.4.1.

<sup>421</sup> SHG has ulus, ABG ulas.

<sup>422</sup> SHG has bairak.

<sup>423</sup> SHG has bas.

It seems that every consonant can be geminated, with the possible exception of r, h and the foreign phonemes f, g for which no example of gemination has been found. In addition, geminated w and y are only found in word-internal position (see below).

Gemination of word-final consonants is particularly common.<sup>424</sup> Examples are:

- $\check{c}app^{425}$  "left",  $sangatt^{426}$  "friend",  $\check{\jmath}utt^{427}$  "old she-camel",  $kumakk^{428}$  "help", yaxx (ABG, BMC) "cold" (NP);
- $labb^{429}$  "bride-price, bribe", sudd (BMC, EAL, SHG) "consciousness" (from Ur.  $sud^h$ ),  $hadd^{430}$  "bone" (Ur.  $hadd\bar{a}$  or Si. hadu),  $hadg^{431}$  "camel herd";
- bačč<sup>432</sup> "boy" (NP), wajj<sup>433</sup> "dowry", hašš<sup>434</sup> "millstone", mažž<sup>435</sup> "leprosy" (BMC), "epilepsy" (EVM), uruss (BMC, SHG) "Russia", gazz<sup>436</sup> "tamarisk";
- kamm<sup>437</sup> "few, little", dann<sup>438</sup> "plain, space", barr<sup>439</sup> "penis", pull<sup>440</sup> "flower".

<sup>424</sup> This is probably why JAHANI 1989:16 notices gemination only in the case of word-final consonants.

<sup>425</sup> čapp (thus ABG, BMC, EAL, SHG; DTB and EVM have čap) has been borrowed from NP čap (also attested as čapp) according to HÜBSCHMANN 1895:52.

<sup>426</sup> Thus BMC, FBB; SHG has sangat, EAL has both. The word has been borrowed from Urdu.

<sup>427</sup> jutt (SHG jut) is likely to have been borrowed from some Ind. language.

<sup>428</sup> kumakk (BMC, EAL; EVM kumak, SHG has both) has been borrowed from NP (GEIGER 1891:421).

<sup>429</sup> labb (BMC, EAL, SHG) is from Si. labanu "bribe" (ELFENBEIN 1990/II:89).

<sup>430</sup> haḍḍ (ABG, BMC, SHG; aḍḍ EVM, FBB, aḍ NAWATA 1981:34, haḍ DTB).

<sup>431</sup> For further discussion about bagg (thus BMC, EAL, SHG; EVM has bag), cf. p. 280.

<sup>432</sup> For *bačč* (BMC, EAL, SHG; DTB has *bač*<sup>h</sup>, cf. p. 229), cf. p. 100.

<sup>433</sup> Maybe *wajj* (BMC, EAL, SHG) represents NP-Ar. *wajh* "face, method, cause, privileges" which is used in Urdu also with the meaning "salary".

<sup>434</sup> hašš (EAL, SHG; EVM āšš is a misprint for ašš as the references to Zarubin's texts show, EAL āšš is therefore to be deleted) has probably been borrowed from some other Ir. idiom, cf. Bashkardi yaš, waš, Kurd. aş (Elfenbein 1963:15). With regard to the h- which seems to be secondary in Balochi, one might assume a borrowing from Kurdish or some related idiom (cf. II 2.4.1.5), even though Kurmanji does not show h- in this word. Elfenbein's etymology (1963:15) which assumes a preform \*arðr-, linking the word to NP ās, seems questionable.

<sup>435</sup> The etymology of *mažž* is not clear.

<sup>436</sup> gazz (BMC, EAL, SHG; DTB, EVM has gaz) has probably been borrowed from NP gaz (GEIGER 1891:449), but OIr. \*gaza- (cf. BAILEY 1979:80a) would give Bal. gaz as well.

<sup>437</sup> *kamm* (BMC, FBB, SHG; ABG, EVM *kam*; DTB  $k^ham$ ) has been borrowed from NP (GEIGER 1891:452). With regard to Prth.  $kamb\bar{\imath}g$  and the fact that the MP assimilation nd > nn does not take place in Balochi (cf. p. 79), it seems indeed best to consider kam(m) a loanword.

<sup>438</sup> The obl. of *dann* (BMC, EAL, SHG, NAWATA 1981:45) means "outside". The word may be an Ind. loanword (maybe connected to Ur. *d*<sup>h</sup>*a-nā*, *dah-nā* "to fall, to be destroyed"?).

Word-internal gemination is also found with most consonants. No examples for the nasals have been found, though, all examples for mm, nn either being borrowed from a word with geminate or are derivations of a word with word-final geminate. For ww, quwwat (ABG) "strength" (NP-Ar. quwwat) is the only word found so far. Geminated yy has only been found in ABG; the relevant cases may be due to some uncertainty concerning the question how to write sequences of  $\bar{e} + y$ : bayy-,  $b\bar{e}yy$ - for usual bay-,  $b\bar{e}y$ - "be, become" (cf. p. 78),  $yakayy\bar{e}n$  "alone, only" (adj. derivation of the NP loanword yak(k) "one", for which cf. p. 105).

# Examples for the other consonants are:<sup>442</sup>

- ruppī (BMC) "Rupia (monetary unit)" (FBB rupē, Ur. rupayā); attar<sup>443</sup> (ABG, EAL) "perfume" (NP-Ar. 'aṭr'); čuṭṭṭī (ABG) "holiday" (Si. čʰuṭṭī); badrakka (BMC, EAL) for badraga, badraga (GCD)<sup>444</sup> "escort, convoy";
- *čabbaw*<sup>445</sup> (BMC, EAL) "sandal"; *paddar* (ABG, BMC, EAL, SHG) "evident" (Si. *pad*<sup>h</sup>*irō*); *budd* (BMC, EAL, SHG, NAWATA 1891:16) "sink (itr.)" (Si. *budanu*);

<sup>439</sup> *barr* (BMC, EAL) might have been borrowed from NP *bar* "breast, side, small of back, embrace", for the semantics, cf. German *Lenden* "loins" which may be used to refer to the male genitals.

<sup>440</sup> pull (BMC, EAL, SHG; ABG, FBB have pul, DTB has  $p^hul$ ) is from Ind. (e.g. Si.  $p^hulu$ ).

<sup>441</sup> Examples for *mm*: *ammā* "but" (NP-Ar. *ammā*), *ummēd* "hope" (MP *ummēd*, cf. p. 269); *kammō* "few" from *kam(m)* (see above). ABG *kammāš* "greyhaired, respected man, president" for *kamāš* of other sources (the etymology is unclear, cf. Rossi 1979:69) is maybe due to a misinterpretation of the word as of the Arabic type CaCCāC which denotes professions. – The etymology of the hapax *adammag* (EVM) "broad" is unclear.

Examples for *nn*: *minnat* "favour" (NP-Ar. *minnat*), *munnā* (FBB) "child" (Ur. *munnā* "darling"), *tunn* "thirst" (from an OIr. consonant cluster, cf. p. 127), *annūn* "right now" (cf. p. 202, 214), cases of family language are also found, e.g. *nunnuk* "baby".

<sup>442</sup> For žž, only the following words of uncertain etymology have been found: gažž-/gažž- (BMC, EAL, SHG) "swell with rage, be angry",  $h\bar{e}ž\bar{z}-$  (EAL) "whizz",  $h\bar{t}ž\bar{z}ag$  (EAL, SHG) "howling of the wind", perhaps to be connected to  $i\bar{z}z\bar{z}ag$  (EVM) "hiss, flutter"; its origin might be onomatopoetical. For juzz- "move" and for  $jurr\bar{a}b$  "stocking", cf. p. 209.

<sup>443</sup> attar also shows an anaptyctical vowel (cf. p. 206).

<sup>444</sup> DTB has *badragā* with lengthening of word-final -*a* (cf. p. 190f.). The word is likely to derive from Turk. *badraq* "flag, section of an army" (thence also NP-Turk. *bairaq* "flag"), cf. DOERFER II:279f.; *badrakka* may have been borrowed from Pnj. *badrakka*.

<sup>445</sup> DTB has  $\check{c}ab^ha$ . According to EAL 27, the word has been borrowed from Lhd.  $\check{c}^hab\bar{a}$ .

- maččť<sup>446</sup> (FBB, EAL) "fish"; pujj-/pujjiť<sup>47</sup> (ABG, BMC, FBB, EAL, SHG) "arrive"; čašš- (BMC, EAL) "taste, sip" (NP čaš-, cf. p. 114); kīssag<sup>448</sup> (FBB, SHG) "pocket" (NP-Ar. kīsa); azziyat (EVM) "offence" (NP-Ar. aziyat "molesting");
- *čakarr* "turn, be dizzy" (Si. *čakaru* "dizziness"); *balluk* "grandmother" (Br. *balla*, cf. MORGENSTIERNE 1948:283).

It is noteworthy that the gemination is also found in quite a number of borrowed verbs, e.g. (in addition to those just mentioned):<sup>449</sup>

- *čikk- / čikkit* (BMC, FBB, EAL, SHG) "pull";<sup>450</sup>
- *kutt-* (ABG, EVM, EAL, NAWATA 1981:16) "crush" (Ur. *kut-nā*);
- *ill* (BMC, FBB, EAL, SHG) "leave, let" (NP *hil*-, Prth. *hirz- / hišt*, cf. HÜBSCHMANN 1884:110<sup>5</sup>). 451

The (sources dealing with) Eastern dialects show but few examples: the only words with final geminate in DTB are ones where the geminate has been borrowed *durr* "pearl; excellent" (NP-Ar. *durr*), *rabb* "God" (NP-Ar. *rabb*), *sill* "brick" (Pnj. (DTB) *sil*), *kull* "whole" (NP-Ar. *kull*), *k*<sup>h</sup>*ill*<sup>452</sup> "axe of millstone" (Ind.), *mudd* "harvest; period" (NP-Ar. *muddat* "time"). These words are cited with geminates in all sources which have them.

<sup>446</sup>  $ma\check{c}\check{c}\bar{t}$  has been borrowed from Si.  $ma\check{c}^h\bar{t}$ ; the other dialects have Pers.  $m\bar{a}h\bar{t}g$  (cf. p. 136).

<sup>447</sup> GCD has *puj-/pujiϑ-*. It has generally been assumed (GILBERTSON 1925:35, FARRELL 2003:183) that the word has been borrowed from Si. *pahučanu / puhčanu* "arrive", but it seems much more likely that it comes from Si. *pujanu*, Lhd. *pujjan* "to be finished, arrive at" (Georg Buddruss, personal communication, cf. TURNER 1966:473).

<sup>448</sup> For secondary addition of -ag, cf. II 2.4.4.1.

<sup>449</sup> For  $\check{c}ar$ - "graze" and  $\check{c}arr$ - "turn", cf. p. 84. In the case of tar(r)- "turn", one may suppose that an analogy to  $\check{c}ar(r)$ - is at work, motivated by the similar meaning, but a borrowing from Urdu is also possible (cf. p. 150).

<sup>450</sup> GCD has  $\check{c}ik$ - /  $\check{c}iki\vartheta$ -; the word has been borrowed from Si.  $\check{c}^hikanu$  (EAL: Lhd.).

<sup>451</sup> The past stem is *išt* (NP *hišt*, *hilīd*-). The Bal. product of PIE \*ģ+t would be *št* as well, but it seems more probable that the past stem has been borrowed along with the present stem, although a change \*(h)uršt > \*(h)iršt > *išt* is not excluded for Balochi either (see II 2.3.2.1, 3.1.2.3.1). All sources note this Bal. verb without *h*-, with the exception of Yūsefiyān 1992:89 who has *hel-/hešt* (standing for /hil-/hišt/, cf. II 3.2.4.2).

<sup>452</sup> The word may have been borrowed from Ur.  $k^hil$  "nail, pin".

Other loanwords in EBal. sources do not exhibit final geminates although one might expect them, e.g. *hak* "rights" from NP-Ar. *ḥaqq*. ABG has quite a number of words with final geminates, 453 but none of these show Eastern dialectal features. Note that geminated consonants in postvocalic position do not yield fricatives as simple consonants do (cf. p. 228), e.g. dim. suffix -*ik*(*k*), *pakār* "necessary, useful".

If the assumption is correct that Bal. geminates are either due to an OIr. consonant cluster or to the borrowing process, it allows in certain cases to decide whether a given Bal. word has been borrowed: words which (from the viewpoint of Bal. historical phonology) might be genuine and differ from their NP cognate only in the gemination of a consonant would be likely to have been borrowed. The absence of gemination should, however, rather not be used to identify a word as genuine, since (the notation of) geminates depends very much on the respective sources and dialects.

# 3.3.1.6 Weakening of consonants<sup>454</sup>

# 3.3.1.6.1 Voicing of word-initial consonants<sup>455</sup>

In some words, the word-initial consonant appears voiced instead of being voiceless:

- $b\bar{a}d\bar{s}\bar{a}h^{456}$  "king" for usual  $p\bar{a}d\bar{s}\bar{a}h$  (from NP  $p\bar{a}di\bar{s}\bar{a}h$ );
- bažm (EAL) "wool" for usual (NP) pašm (for which cf. p. 178, 207);
- guj (EVM, EAL), gujā (Sokolov 1956:74, Nawata 1981:31, EAL) for kujā<sup>457</sup>
   "where"; gujām (Nawata 1981:12) for kujām<sup>458</sup> "which one".

<sup>453</sup> Most words are from Ind., e.g. *luṭṭ* "plunder" (Ur. *luṭ*, Si. *luṭi*, Lhd. has *luṭṭ*- "to loot", ELFENBEIN 1991:112), *mučċ* "supplied" (Si. (DTB) *mučʰu* "heap"), *wass* "control, grasp" (Si. (DTB) *vasu*).

<sup>454</sup> For voicing in groups with liquids, cf. p. 267.

<sup>455</sup> GEIGER 1891:436 assumes a voicing process in EBal.  $pa\check{j}\bar{a}$  vs. SWBal.  $ba\check{j}\bar{a}$ , but the identity of these two words is doubtful (cf. p. 106).

<sup>456</sup> ABG, BMC, JAHANI 1997:118 (from a poem by Gul Khan Nasir). The word might have been borrowed from Psht.  $b\bar{a}d\bar{s}\bar{a}h$ .

<sup>457</sup> ku jā is likely to be a NP loanword. For the Bal. equivalent of NP jā etc., cf. II 2.2.3.5.

<sup>458</sup> *kujām* is likely to be a mixture of NP *kudām* with *kujā* (ELFENBEIN 1990/II:78). More genuine forms might be EBal. *kuthān*, *kithān* (DTB etc., MORGENSTIERNE 1932:48). *kuthān* is unlikely to contain an element \*tān (thus ELFENBEIN 1990/II:78), but to reflect CBal. \*kutām with the -*n* taken from the (EBal.) pronoun *ān* "that" (MORGENSTIERNE 1932:48). If so, EBal. *kuthān* must have been borrowed from SWBal. (otherwise one would expect †kuðān) and be cognate with NP *kudām* (Prth. *kadām*, Sogd. *kt'm*, Av. *katāma*-); its -*u*- is taken from *kujā* "where" (HORN 1893:188).

The reason of the voicing is not clear. One might assume (for all the examples above) that there is some sort of assimilation to the voiced consonant(s) in the rhyme of the syllable (Ralf-Peter Ritter, personal communication).<sup>459</sup>

# 3.3.1.6.2 Voicing and vocalisation of labials

In a number of examples, word-internal voiced labials are observed where one might expect voiceless ones. There does not seem to be a sure case of a genuine word.<sup>460</sup>

#### p > w:

w for p appears in several words found in Eastern Balochi (GEIGER 1891:434):

- EBal.  $s(a)w\bar{e}\vartheta$ ,  $sw\bar{e}s$  (cf. p. 206) besides  $saf\bar{e}\vartheta$  (SWBal.  $sp\bar{e}t$  etc.) "white", the word has probably been borrowed from Persian, cf. p. 90;
- *kawinjar* (GLADSTONE 1874) "partridge" vs. *kapinjar* (SHG) is probably from some Ind. language (cf. OInd. *kapiñjala*-, ELFENBEIN 1990/II:82);<sup>461</sup>
- EBal. (h)awōx (MAYER 1910, EAL) besides hapōk "co-wife" (cf. p. 307) might have been influenced by NP hawū. 462

There are some words which maybe do not show a substitution of w for p/f, but are likely to have been borrowed from a language which has -w- (or b):

- *šawān(k), šwānag* vs. *šupānk* "shepherd" (maybe from Kurdish, cf. p. 225);
- nawāsag "great-grandchild" vs. napāt- (NP nawāsa, cf. p. 89);
- $w\bar{a}\beta$  (LEECH 1838, GLADSTONE 1874, DAMES 1881, DTB) "sleep" is not a voiced variant of \* $w\bar{a}f$ , <sup>463</sup> but rather the regular EBal. form of SWBal.  $w\bar{a}b$ , which in turn has been borrowed from NP  $x^w\bar{a}b$  (cf. p. 123).

<sup>459</sup> SOKOLOV 1956:74 assumes a sandhi phenomenon for  $gu\check{\jmath}$  etc., which commonly directly precedes the verb, e.g.  $ta\ gu\check{\jmath}\bar{a}\ \check{s}utai$ ? "Where did you go?" (example kindly provided by Lutz Rzehak). It is not clear whether such an explanation would match all examples, though. Similar phenomena have been observed e.g. in NP  $b\bar{a}dafr\bar{a}h$  "revenge, punishment" for †pādafrāh (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:36).

<sup>460</sup> The only case of b for p in a genuine word is kabag "to fall" (ABG vs. kapag of all other sources, cf. p. 77), the reason for the voicing is not clear. For b from p next to a liquid, cf. p. 267.

<sup>461</sup> For NP kabk, see below, for the variant kapīnjar, cf. p. 192.

<sup>462</sup> Prth. has <'bwg> according to DURKIN-MEISTERERNST 2004:15a; the word might just as well be Middle Persian, though (thus HENNING 1940:18). The reading  $a\beta\bar{o}\gamma$  seems to be taken from Henning, who, in that article, has MP and Prth.  $\beta$ ,  $\delta$ ,  $\gamma$  for OIr. postvocalic voiceless stops, so it would be  $ab\bar{o}g$  following the transcription system otherwise used in DURKIN-MEISTERERNST 2004.

<sup>463</sup> The existence of  $w\bar{a}f$  is not sure: it is found in LEECH 1838 in the phrase  $w\bar{a}f$   $\check{s}u\vartheta a$  (besides  $w\bar{a}w$ ), which (if not an error) might show an assimilation to the following voiceless sibilant.

For those cases which show w/u for NP f in anteconsonantal position, a borrowing from some NP variant which changes f > w in this position (e.g. Dari, cf. DOROFEEVA 1960:17) is probable:<sup>464</sup>

- augān (BMC, EAL, SHG) "Afghan" (NP afġān, Dari awġān);
- *kauš* (BMC, FBB, EAL, SHG) "shoe" (loanword according to HÜBSCHMANN 1890:556, NP *kafš*, Dari *kawš*);<sup>465</sup>
- $na\beta s^{466}$  (Dames 1881:123) "pulse" (NP-Ar. nafs "soul", Hübschmann 1890:556).

# b > w:<sup>467</sup>

In a couple of borrowed words, word-final or anteconsonantal b appears as w or as  $u / \bar{o}$ , forming a diphthong with the preceding vowel. This would seem to reflect the EBal. form of the word (cf. p. 228), but the attestation suggests that the phenomenon is not limited to Eastern Balochi. It is quite possible that the relevant cases have been borrowed from Dari which regularly shows  $\check{a}b > \check{a}u / C$ ,# (DOROFEEVA 1960:16f.).<sup>468</sup>

- auzār (BMC, EAL) "tool" (NP abzār, afzār);<sup>469</sup>
- sauz (ABG, BMC, SHG) vs. sabz (FBB, SHG), EBal. sa $\beta z$  (DTB) "green";<sup>470</sup>
- *kaug* (BMC, DTB, EAL, SHG), *kauk* (EAL) vs. *kabg* (EAL, SHG), *kabk* (EAL) "partridge" (NP *kabk*).<sup>471</sup>

<sup>464</sup> Note that a number of sources note the diphthongs <ay, aw>, so that, with the exception of ABG, BMC and FBB, it is not clear whether [au] or [aw] is intended.

<sup>465</sup> Note that Kurdish has kewş "shoe" (HAKIM 1996), too.

<sup>466</sup> For EBal.  $\beta$ , cf. p. 61, 228.

<sup>467</sup> ABG  $r\bar{\imath}y\bar{a}r\bar{u}$  "taking sides" besides  $r\bar{u}$ -ba- $r\bar{u}$  "opposite" (borrowed from NP) has probably developed via \* $r\bar{\imath}\beta$ ar $\bar{\imath}$  and exhibits the change  $\bar{u} > \bar{\imath}$  (cf. p. 196f.) in the first syllable. The lengthening of the a might be due to a popular etymology with  $y\bar{a}$  "or".

<sup>468</sup> A change b > w /\_C,# is found in some Tajik dialects (LAZARD 1956:125).

<sup>469</sup> According to HÜBSCHMANN 1895:16, *auzār* has been borrowed from NP *afzār*. A borrowing from the NP/MP form *abzār* seems at least equally likely, though. MP *abzār* goes back to \*upa-čāra-(NYBERG 1974:20). The MP homonym *abzār* "strong" may be derived from \*upa-zāuar(a)-(KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:214), i.e. a compound of *zōr* (cf. p. 102).

<sup>470</sup> From NP sabz. For more discussion of the Bal. terms of colour, cf. III 3.

<sup>471</sup> According to BAILEY 1979:50, Eastern NP has *kauk*, and a cognate might be seen in Khot. *kakva*-(name of a bird). The connection with OInd. *kapíñjala*- is not certain (EWAia I:301). More specifically, *kabk* is not "partridge" (*arborophila*, Germ. "Rebhuhn"), but rather "sand partridge, seesee partridge" (*ammoperdix*, Germ. "Wüstenhuhn"; Lutz Rzehak, personal communication) or "rock partridge" (*alectoris*, Germ. "Steinhuhn"; SCHAPKA 1972).

ABG has  $\bar{b}$ , transcribed  $-\bar{a}\bar{o}$ , in all cases of word-final  $-\bar{a}b$ ; if this is not a misinterpretation of some sort, this might indicate some subdialectal pronunciation of EBal.  $-\bar{a}\beta$ :

- hisāō "calculation" (other sources hisāb, NP-Ar. hisāb), xarāō "bad"<sup>472</sup> (NP-Ar. xarāb), šarāō "wine, alcohol" (otherwise (NP-Ar.) šarāb), kaβāō "roast meat" (otherwise (NP-Ar.) kabāb);
- يو (EBal.  $-i\beta$ ) appears as  $-y\bar{o}$  in ABG:
- $ta\beta \bar{\imath}y\bar{o}$  "physician" (SWBal.  $tab\bar{\imath}b$ , NP-Ar.  $tab\bar{\imath}b$ ),  $zay\bar{o}$  "ornament" (SWBal.  $z\bar{e}b$ )<sup>473</sup>,  $tay\bar{o}$  "mistake" (otherwise aib, NP-Ar.  $tab\bar{\imath}aib$ ),  $tab\bar{\imath}aib$  "poor" (SWBal.  $tab\bar{\imath}aib$ ),  $tab\bar{\imath}aib$  "strange").

A particular case is  $warn\bar{a}$  "young" (all sources), probably a cognate of NP  $burn\bar{a}$  "young man", Av.  $ap \bar{a} r \bar{a} n \bar{a} i u$ - "underage". A derivation of the Bal. word from PIr. \*apṛnājau- as assumed by Moshkalo 1991:21 seems rather unlikely here since it presupposes p > w, otherwise unattested \*r > ar (cf. p. 143f.) and the preservation of OIr. rn (cf. II 2.2.3.3). It seems more probable that  $warn\bar{a}$  has been borrowed from NP  $burn\bar{a}$  (which in turn is a loanword from Av.  $ap \bar{a} r \bar{a} n \bar{a} i u$ -, cf. KLINGENSCHMITT 1978:95, 2000:217), although it has to be admitted that the details remain unclear.

# 3.3.1.6.3 Voicing of word-final consonant groups<sup>474</sup>

In very few examples, word-final consonant clusters are voiced:

- gužg "root" if existing and if from PIr. \*uržaka- (cf. p. 132, 144);
- $g\bar{o}zd$  (GLADSTONE 1874, HITTU RAM 1881, DTB) "meat" for usual  $g\bar{o}zt$ . 475

The informant who supplied  $gu\check{z}g$  was from Noshke (MORGENSTIERNE 1932:39), i.e. from a WBal. speaking area. The second example is found in EBal. sources.

<sup>472</sup> This word is used in a number of variants: xarāb (FBB), (h)arāb (BMC, SHG), k(a)rāb (FBB).

<sup>473</sup> For cognates (e.g. Sogd. zywr), cf. BAILEY 1979:21a. zēb may have been borrowed from NP.

<sup>474</sup> *gwabz* (EAL, SHG), *gwamz* (SHG, EAL: EBal.) is not a case of voicing of consonants (vs. PIE \*μopsā-), but goes back to PIr. \*μabza- < PIIr. \*μabzha-, cf. Av. *vaβžaka*- (BARTHOLOMAE 1890:552, HOFFMANN/ FORSSMAN 1996:105), cf. p. 99.

<sup>475</sup> MP/NP *gōšt* may be derived from \*gau̯š-sti- "cut (piece of) meat", the second member being a *ti*-stem from (OInd.) √dā "cut"; if so, it is a direct cognate of Khot. *ggūśta*-, but not of Psht. γwaṣ̄a, which may be derived from \*gau̯-stra- (GERSHEVITCH 1976:64). Alternatively, the Pers. and the Psht. word have been derived from \*gau̯-gždʰi- "eating of meat" (cf. OInd. *sá-gdʰi-* "common eating", KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:216<sup>86</sup>). In any case, Bal. *gōšt* may have been borrowed from NP.

# **3.3.1.7** Other phenomena 476

## 3.3.1.7.1 Word-initial w-, v-

While Balochi changes OIr.  $\mu$ - to g(w)- (cf. II 2.1.3.3.1), word-initial v- / w- of borrowed words is treated in various ways:

A couple of words show the Bal. treatment of OIr. *u*- in an otherwise Persian word:<sup>477</sup>

- *Gwahrām* (name of a hero) might have been borrowed from MP *Wahrām* or modelled on NP *Bahrām* (cf. MORGENSTIERNE 1937:347<sup>1</sup>);
- $g\bar{\imath}ab$ ,  $g\bar{\imath}ab\bar{a}n$  "desert" (NP  $b\bar{\imath}ab\bar{a}n$ , MP, Prth.  $wiy\bar{a}b\bar{a}n$ , for which cf. Junker 1929:143f.) must have been borrowed (Morgenstierne 1932:41) regardless of whether it goes back to Av.  $v\bar{\imath}uu\bar{a}p(a)$  "plundering" or not;
- $g\bar{e}s$  "more" has been borrowed from MP  $w\bar{e}s$ , NP  $b\bar{e}s$  (its derivation is somewhat unclear) according to GERSHEVITCH 1964:87;
- since all numbers are likely to have been borrowed from NP (cf. p. 81),  $g\bar{\imath}st$  "twenty" may also fit here; on the other hand, it is not entirely impossible that  $g\bar{\imath}st$  is a survival of the inherited Bal. numeral system (cf. KORN, frthc. 3).

MORGENSTIERNE 1932:41, 1937:347 interprets these cases as showing a substitution of the typical Bal. outcomes of  $\mu$ - for NP word-initial b-. The assumption of this somewhat problematic process does not seem necessary, however, since the words may have been borrowed from MP, i.e. before the change of w- > b-. Similarly,  $gw\bar{a}z$  "fathom" need not represent a borrowing from NP  $b\bar{a}z(a)$  (related to  $b\bar{a}z\bar{u}$  "arm") as MORGENSTIERNE (1937:347) assumes, but might be from Psht.  $w\bar{a}z\rho$  "fathom".

477 A further example is *gwadil* "coward" (a literary hapax legomenon from DAMES 1881:155): the word is explained by GEIGER 1891:125 as *gwad-dil*, i.e. a compound of \*gwat "bad" (cf. NP *bad* < MP *wad*) and (NP loanword) *dil* "heart", and a convenient cognate indeed exists in MP *waddil* "fainthearted" (Desmond Durkin-Meisterernst, personal communication). It is possible that *gwadil* has been borrowed from MP.

<sup>476</sup> For r > l in loanwords, cf. II 2.4.2.

<sup>478</sup> Other examples by MORGENSTIERNE 1932:41 of alleged "analogical substitution of [Bal.] *gw-* for [NP] *b-*" are even less convincing: *gwālag* "bag" may have been borrowed from NP *guwāl* (cf. MORGENSTIERNE 1948:288, for *guw-* > *gw-*, cf. p. 219) rather than showing an adaptation of NP *bāla* (cf. p. 97).

Similarly,  $gu\dot{g}$  (DTB), gug (EAL),  $gug\bar{u}$  (SHG) "owl" may be explained as a borrowing from Lhd.  $g^hug^h$  (ELFENBEIN 1985:230) and is thus unlikely to have been borrowed from NP buh.

<sup>479</sup> For further discussion of Psht. *wāzə* and its cognates, cf. MORGENSTIERNE 2003:94, SIMS-WILLIAMS 1983a:359.

In some cases, Ind. v- is treated like OIr. u-, i.e. changed to Bal. g(w): 480

- SHG gisir- "get lost" comes from Si. visiranu according to DTB;
- MORGENSTIERNE 1948:256 considers gwač(č) "(buffalo) calf" (also used to denote "chicken") to be a loanword since the Eastern dialects have gwač as well, not †gwaš. Although this argument is not entirely conclusive since the Eastern dialects may have borrowed the word from SWBal., gwač(č) is indeed likely to have been borrowed from Si. vač<sup>h</sup> "buffalo calf", the identity of the meaning and the doubling of the č speaking for a borrowing rather than in favour of the word being inherited (if the latter was the case, gwač(č) might be a direct cognate of NP bačča "child, son", as GEIGER 1891:424 presumed).

In other cases, *b*- is substituted for Ind. *v*-, presumably because *v*- sounds more like *b*-than like *w*- to a Bal. ear:

- *bag(g)* "camel herd" might have been borrowed from Si./Lhd. *vagu* (thus ELFENBEIN 1963:22, 1990/II:14), alternatively, the change of the word-initial might be attributed to Brahui (thus ZARUBIN 1930:660) which has *bag*, too;
- *bēr* "revenge" might have been borrowed from Si. *vēru* (ELFENBEIN 1963:24), if not from Ur. *bair* "revenge";
- $b\bar{a}h\bar{o}t$  "refuge, refugee" which is also found in Brahui might be a further case provided that it has been borrowed from Balochi into Brahui and not vice-versa and that the etymology advocated by BRAY III:61 (Si.  $v\bar{a}ha$  "protection" +  $\bar{o}ta$  "sanctuary") is correct.

## 3.3.1.7.2 $y - > \emptyset$

Some loanwords exhibit loss of word-initial y-:<sup>482</sup>

- $\bar{a}b\bar{u}$  (EVM) "pony" from NP  $y\bar{a}b\bar{u}$  (originally Turk., cf. DOERFER IV:48);
- $\bar{a}sam\bar{\iota}$  (BMC),  $\bar{a}sum\bar{\iota}^{483}$  (SHG) vs.  $y\bar{a}sum\bar{\iota}$  (SHG),  $y\bar{a}sm\bar{\iota}n$  (EAL) "jasmin" (NP  $y\bar{a}sam\bar{\iota}(n)$ , MP  $y\bar{a}saman$ );

<sup>480</sup> ELFENBEIN's assumption (1989:635) of *gwahr* "cold" being borrowed from Khetrani *vahōr* is not necessary (cf. p. 118).

<sup>481</sup> Also gisar "forgetting" (DTB), "mistake, oversight; died, disappeared" (EAL).

<sup>482</sup> Note that words with y- are necessarily loanwords, since in genuine words, y- is changed to  $\check{j}$ - as in NP (cf. II 2.1.3.4.1). In other loanwords, ya- is changed to  $\bar{e}$ - (cf. p. 255).

<sup>483</sup> For -u- instead of a, cf. p. 286.

- $\bar{a}k\bar{u}tt^{484}$  (SHG) "ruby" vs.  $y\bar{a}k\bar{u}t$  (EAL) "precious stone" (NP  $y\bar{a}q\bar{u}t$ , NP/MP  $y\bar{a}kand$ , Prth.  $y\bar{a}kund$ ); 485
- atīm (EVM, BUDDRUSS 1988:70)<sup>486</sup> vs. yatīm (DTB, EAL, SHG) "orphan" (NP-Ar. yatīm).

## 3.3.1.7.3 t > t

It would not be surprising to find t instead of t, parallel to the occasional changes of d > d and r > r found in some not necessarily borrowed words (cf. p. 182f.). However, the loanword SHG  $t\bar{o}p$  (written  $t\bar{o}p$ ) with missing vocalisation mark) "canon" besides  $t\bar{o}p$  (NP  $t\bar{o}p$ , originally from Turkic, DOERFER II:948ff.) is the only example found so far.

In addition, t is regularly used for European t in English loanwords (cf. p. 67) as it is in Ind. languages (FARRELL 2003:178), and probably the words in question are taken over from there (presumably from Urdu), e.g. tikat(t) "ticket" (cf. p. 271),  $d\bar{a}ktar$  "doctor",  $p\bar{a}rt\bar{t}$  "party (celebration)" (FBB) etc.

### 3.3.1.7.4 Peculiar cases

As in NP, the Ar. word *waqt* is rendered in Balochi in a number of different ways, not only in the way one would expect from the usual rules applied to Ar. loanwords:

- the usual rendering of q with k (cf. p. 65) is seen in wakt (MARSTON 1877, BMC, EAL, FBB, BUDDRUSS 1988:82);
- the NP and Psht. pronunciation waxt is seen in waxt (BMC, DTB, EAL);
- *x* is replaced by *h* as usual (cf. p. 65) with an irregular voicing to bring about *wahd* (PIERCE 1874, MARSTON 1877, BMC, EAL, SHG) which is the basis for WBal. *wād*, *wāhd* and *wad* (cf. p. 253f.).

<sup>484</sup> For the gemination of word-final consonants in SHG, cf. p. 242.

<sup>485</sup> Prth. yākund occurs together with other (semi-)precious stones in M 229 R i 9-15: hō radan wuzurg xōž pāy, čē-d padγrift až šāh rōšn ō hawīn dwāδes yākund ud haft bilōr arγāw "Protect well the big jewel which you received from the king of light, the twelve hyacinths and seven noble crystals" (transcription by COLDITZ 2000:280, German translation by RECK 1992:345). The origin of the word is Greek ὑάκινθος (HENNING 1937:89) which denotes a semiprecious stone of blue colour. For bilōr, cf. p. 203., for Prth. <xwj>, cf. p. 132.

<sup>486</sup> BUDDRUSS (1988:44) has (h)at $\bar{t}m$ , with optional secondary h (on secondary h-, cf. II 2.4.1.3).

# **3.3.2** Vowels

#### 3.3.2.1 Loss of vowels

In addition to MIr. vowel elision (cf. II 3.1.2.1), and phenomena of loss of vowels typical for some dialects (cf. II 3.2.1.2, 3.2.2.2, 3.2.3.2), there is a rather systematic loss of vowels found chiefly in seemingly rather recent loanwords.

In most cases, it is the vowel a of non-first open syllables which is lost, e.g.  $^{487}$ 

- aimnī (ABG) "security, safety" from Ur. aimanī; 488
- aulī (BMC, FBB) "first", auliyā (SHG) "excellent" vs. awal "first"; 489
- badlī (ABG) "exchange", badl- (BMC, EAL) "change" vs. badal "exchange"; 490
- paisla(g) (BMC), fais(i)la (EAL) "decision" (NP-Ar. faisala);<sup>491</sup>
- jãglī "wild" vs. jangal "forest" (cf. p. 244);
- *sadka* (BMC), *sazqā* (ABG, cf. p. 191) "alms, charity" vs. (SHG) *sadak(k)a* (NP-Ar. *sadaqa*);
- sangtī (ABG) "loyalty" vs. sangat(t) "friend" (Urdu loanword, cf. p. 272);<sup>492</sup>
- *šāmlī* (ABG) "included" from NP-Ar. *šāmil* "including";
- harkat (EAL), arkat (EVM) "motion" 493 vs. NP-Ar. harakat.

<sup>487</sup> dar ja(g) (ABG, BMC, SHG) "degree, position" and ramzān "Ramadan (name of a month)" need not show a Balochi syncopation vs. NP-Ar. dara ja, ramazān, respectively, since Urdu has dar(a) ja, ram(a) zān. Parallel cases are zāmnī (ABG) "guarantee, bail" which need not be derived from Bal. zāmin (ABG, EAL) "bail, security" but may have been borrowed directly from Ur. zām(i) nī (NP-Ar. zāmin; Elfenbein's connection (EAL 165) of Bal. zāmīn with Av. zəmāna- is not correct), and gal jā (ABG) "misunderstanding" which corresponds to Ur. gal(a) tī "mistake, misapprehension" vs. galat (ABG), galat (DTB, EAL), galat (SHG) "wrong, mistake" (in Urdu, the word is used both as adj. and as a noun, thence probably the Bal. semantics), all from NP-Ar. galaṭ.

<sup>488</sup> Ur. *aimanī* is based on NP *aiman* "safe, secure", which occurs in Urdu in the form *ēmin*. *ēmin* has been borrowed into Balochi as *ēmin* (SHG, EAL), according to EAL also *ēman*, *hēmin*. BMC, EAL have *ēmanī* "security" which is derived from *ēmin* / *ēman*.

<sup>489</sup> From NP-Ar. *awwal*. The adverb *awalā* (BMC, EVM) "at first" might be a still younger copying of NP-Ar. *awwalan*, cf. also V 1.4.

<sup>490</sup> From NP-Ar. *badal*. FBB *badalī* "exchange" may have been formed anew on the basis of *badal*. For the anthropologically interesting use of *badal* as a name, cf. BADALKHAN 2003:286.

<sup>491</sup> For further variants, cf. p. 191, for the -g added by BMC, cf. p. 165.

<sup>492</sup> Since  $sangt\bar{t}$  means "loyalty", the word is unlikely to have been borrowed from Ur.  $sangat\bar{t}$ , which means "comrade" and is not found without the a of the second syllable, but will rather represent a Bal. formation from the Ur. loanword sangat(t).

<sup>493</sup> The meaning "mischief" given by EAL (no source given) is surprising.

Elision of a vowel (not only of a) in the first syllable is seen in:<sup>494</sup>

- brōbarī (ABG) "equality" vs. barōbar (cf. p. 286) "equal" (NP barābar(ī));
- *adga*, *agdar* (EVM, for the metathesis, cf. p. 266) vs. *diga*(*r*) (BMC, FBB, cf. p. 195) "other" (NP *diga*(*r*));
- krāb (FBB) "bad" vs. karāb etc. (NP-Ar. xarāb "broken", cf. p. 66);
- *klīt* (EAL) vs. *kilīt* (cf. p. 237, 269) "key" (NP *kilīd*).

Syncopation of  $\check{a}ya > \check{a}i$  in NP loans is found several times:

- āindag (ABG) "future" vs. NP āyanda;
- *bāid* (BMC), *bāīd* (EVM), *mē-bāīt* (EVM, cf. p. 269) vs. *bāyad* (SHG, NAWATA 1981:22) "(to be) necessary" (NP *bāyad*);<sup>495</sup>
- $h\bar{a}ik$ , haig,  $\bar{a}ig$  vs.  $\bar{a}yag^{496}$  "egg" (NP  $x\bar{a}ya$ );
- in  $s\bar{a}'ig$ ,  $s\bar{a}hig$ ,  $s\bar{a}\bar{i}$  "shadow",  $hams\bar{a}(h)ig$  "neighbour" (cf. p. 108f.) vs. NP  $(ham)s\bar{a}ya$ ,  $\bar{a}i$  is perceived as a hiatus liable to be prevented by h (cf. p. 162).

Vowel elision in a closed syllable has been found in

- $\bar{a}\check{c}$  "fire" (besides genuine  $\bar{a}s$ , for which cf. p. 89) is most probably a syncopated form of borrowed NP  $\bar{a}ta\check{s}$  (BARTHOLOMAE 1885:133);<sup>497</sup>
- baġl gir- (DTB) vs. bagal kan- (BMC) "embrace" (NP baġal "armpit", cf. p. 292);
- palk (EAL), phalk (DTB) "time, moment" vs. NP-Ar. falak "circuit, sky";
- *šarp* (ABG) vs. *šarap/f* (BMC, SHG) "honour, hospitality" (NP-Ar. *šaraf*).

It is possible that the vowel elision took place in a form where the vowel in question was in an open syllable (e.g. obl. case, which is also used in locative function).

<sup>494</sup> *brinj* (GEIGER 1891:446, EAL, SHG) "rice" (cf. p. 134) and *brinj* "copper" (GEIGER 1891:446), "copperware" (EAL), "nickel" (SHG) need not show elision of a vowel vs. NP *birinj* "rice", *birinj* "bronze, brass", as the words may have been borrowed from MP *brinj*. In this case, BMC, DTB *birinj* "rice" might come from a later layer of borrowings or a contamination with the NP form. For the etymology of both words, cf. HORN 1893:48, HÜBSCHMANN 1895:27f. For *prāh*, cf. p. 117.

<sup>495</sup> *bāid* is used as an adj. in BMC: *bāid int* "it is necessary", whereas in Afghanistan and Turkmenistan, the construction is exactely parallel to the NP one, e.g. (NAWATA 1981:22): *šumā bāyad ōdā šutēnit* "you should have gone there" (for the irrealis suffix, cf. p. 340). NP *bāyad* is likely to derive from \*apa-aia- "be missing" (TREMBLAY 2003:127).

<sup>496</sup> For more details and a discussion of the probable loanword status, cf. p. 108f., 156f.

<sup>497</sup> NP  $\bar{a}ta\check{s}$  (MPZ  $\bar{a}tax\check{s}$ ) has been borrowed from Av.  $\bar{a}tar\check{s}$  (nom.sg. of  $\bar{a}tar$ -, cf. HORN 1893:3, KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:217), and the same is also possible, but unlikely for  $\bar{a}\check{c}$ . ELFENBEIN's note (1990/II:2) about  $\bar{a}\check{c}$  "< \* $\bar{a}t$ -(i) $\check{s}$ " is not clear to me.

āčiš "fire, burning ashes" seems to be a contamination of NP ātiš with āč (ELFENBEIN 1991:112).

### 3.3.2.2 Changes in quantity

In addition to the cases discussed in II 3.1.2.2, the following changes in vowel quantity seem to be limited to loanwords:

## Metathesis of vowel quantity

A small number of loanwords show lengthening of the vowel in one syllable and shortening in the other:

- *janāwar* besides *jānwar* "animal"; it is most probably composed of *jān* (cf. p. 135) and *bar-* "carry", the *w* shows that it has been borrowed from NP *jānwar*;
- *kāsib* vs. SHG *kasīp* "turtle, tortoise": *kāsib* only occurs in PIERCE 1874 and in EAL (with the remark: Coastal dialects; maybe taken from PIERCE 1874). A genuine Bal. word should show *š* (cf. p. 129f.) for OInd. *śy* (*kaśyápa-*), Av. -*sii-* (*kasiiapa-*) as does NP (which should have *s*) *kašaf*. The Bal. word might have been influenced by Ind. words (cf. e.g. Ur. *kasyap*, *kaśyap* "a kind of fish or deer"), but the details are not clear. For additional Ir. cognates, cf. BAILEY 1979:75.

## Monophthongisation

The cases are not numerous and might belong to specific dialects only.  $\bar{e}$ ,  $\bar{t}$  for ai:

- $x\bar{e}r\bar{a}t$  (FBB) "alms" for regular *hairāt*, *xairāt* and *kēriat*, *(h)ēriat* (both FARRELL 2003:176) "healthy" for *xairiat* belong to the sphere of religious expressions and have so far only been reported from Karachi (cf. p. 65, 66);
- (°)īd (ABG, EAL; otherwise aid) "holiday" and qīmat (ABG), kīmat (GEIGER 1891:453, EAL) "value" are more likely to have been borrowed from NP (same form in Urdu) 'īd, qīmat, respectively, than from CNP 'eid, qeimat.

 $\bar{o}$  for au:

•  $k^{(h)}\bar{o}r$  "river, ravine" (ABG) may be from Lhd.  $k^h\bar{o}r$ , 498 alternatively, it can be a monophthongised variant of possibly inherited  $k^{(h)}aur$  (BMC, DTB, FBB, SHG). 499

<sup>498</sup> This word is reported by MORGENSTIERNE 1927:99, who considers it a loanword from Balochi.

<sup>499</sup> Note that Psht. x(w)ar "(dry) watercourse" cannot, as GEIGER 1890:133f. assumes, be a cognate of Bal. kaur (MORGENSTIERNE 1927:99). Morgenstierne agrees with Geiger in connecting Bal. kaur to NP kaura "torrent". For the variant  $k\bar{u}r$ , cf. p. 200.

# 3.3.2.3 Changes in quality<sup>500</sup>

The degree of variation of vowels is even greater in loanwords than in genuine words (for these, cf. II 3.1.2.3). Unlike some of the cases discussed in II 3.3.2.2, I have not found corresponding forms in Urdu etc. which would explain the vowel quality.

### **Neutralisation**

As a often functions as neutral vowel in Balochi,<sup>501</sup> it appears in some cases where the etymology would suggest a different vowel:

- adālat(t) for NP-Ar. 'idālat "justice" (cf. p. 63);
- *ulas* (ABG) for usual *ulus(s)* "people" (cf. p. 271);
- garūr (ABG) "pride, haughtiness" for NP-Ar. gurūr;
- qasūr-dār (ABG) "culprit, accused" from NP-Ar. qusūr "guilt";
- 'āqabat (ABG) "future" for NP-Ar. 'āqibat (for further variants, see below);
- *kamak* (EAL) for *kumak*(*k*) "help" (cf. p. 193, 272).

### **Palatalisation**

In genuine words, i for a and sometimes also u is seen next to a palatal consonant (cf. II 3.1.2.3.1). There are some cases of loanwords where the motivation for the palatalisation is less clear:

- binā (EVM, EAL) "beginning" for NP-Ar. banā' "foundation";<sup>502</sup>
- hitar<sup>503</sup> "fear" (ABG) for hatar "danger" (EAL) from NP-Ar. xatar "danger";
- gardin (ABG, BMC, FBB, EAL, SHG) vs. DTB, GCD gardan "neck"; 504
- nimāz "prayer" (NP namāz, cf. p. 193);
- the WBal. formation of the infinitive by adding -in to the past stem (vs. the -ag suffixed to the pres. stem in the others) is likely to have been influenced by, if not borrowed from, the parallel formation in NP (past stem + -an).

<sup>500</sup> For aimnī, ēmanī "security", cf. p. 282. On the treatment of word-inital ya-, cf. p. 255, 281f.

<sup>501</sup> For a similar phenomenon in EBal., cf. p. 236f.

<sup>502</sup> The parallel palatalisation process has taken place in Georg. bina "flat" and Dhivehi  $bina + k_s$  "build", both borrowed from the same NP-Ar. word (Jost Gippert, personal communication).

<sup>503</sup> It is interesting that the word is written  $-\infty$ , indicating knowledge about the origin of the h as x (cf. p. 65), but not of the t as t.

<sup>504</sup> From NP gardan; for the variant girden, cf. p. 195.

#### Labialisation

u for a or even i is found mainly when next to a labial consonant or in case of u in a neighbouring syllable. There are three cases of labialisation in possibly inherited words:

- rōmust (SHG) vs. rōmast (DTB) "rumination", OInd. romant a- (cf. p. 95);
- muj, muž "fog" < \* mižā- (cf. p. 93, 229);</li>
- if *muzg* "back of head" is the same word as *mazg*, *majg* "brain" (cf. p. 88), it might be another example.

The remaining cases of labialisation are loanwords:

- $\bar{a}kubat$  (BMC) for  $\bar{a}kibat$  (SHG),  $axibat^{505}$  (EAL) "future" from NP-Ar.  $\bar{a}qibat$  (cf. also p. 93, 201, 285);
- uškumag (EVM) for šikam (ABG, SHG) "stomach" (cf. p. 170, 204);
- tumun (SHG) for normal tuman "tribe" (cf. p. 187);
- sundūk (BMC) for sandūq (GCD) "box" (cf. p. 163);
- (y)āsumī (SHG) for āsamī etc. "jasmine" (cf. p. 280).

The reason for the appearance of u in the following words is not clear:

- ārunj, ārung "elbow" vs. NP āranj (cf. p. 292);
- *arzun* "millet" (cf. p. 97);
- *gultī*<sup>506</sup> "mistake" vs. *galtī* "misunderstanding" (both ABG, cf. p. 282).

A special sort of labialisation is seen in

- barōbar (for the variant barēbar, cf. p. 202) for barābar "equal"; 507
- $m\bar{o}batt \text{ (BMC)}^{508} \text{ for } m\bar{a}batt \text{ "love" (from NP-Ar. } mahabbat).$

# **Dipthongisation**

An unetymological diphthong is seen in the following cases:

- $aijz\bar{\imath}$  (ABG) "humility" could somehow be formed from NP-Ar.  $^cajz$  (in Urdu also  $^cijz$ ),  $^c\bar{a}jiz\bar{\imath}$  "weakness";
- airād (ABG) vs. īrād (EAL) "objection" (NP-Ar. īrād).

<sup>505</sup> The short a- may be a misprint since none of the other variants (nor of the other sources) has a-.

<sup>506</sup> The transcription has <u> which means  $\bar{u}$  in the system used in ABG, but the Ar. orthography (with vocalisation mark) indicates u; ABG obviously assumes the existence of two words both written غلطي.

<sup>507</sup> Since NP *barābar* may be interpreted as "breast-to-breast" (BAILEY 1979:376b), the Bal. word is a loanword (cf. p. 99, 294 for the Bal. cognate of NP *bar*). Cf. also p. 283.

<sup>508</sup> The variant muhbat is derived from mobatt, cf. II 3.1.3.2, 3.2.1.3, 3.3.1.5fn.

## III. Lexicon

The purpose of this chapter is twofold: first, exemplary parts of the Balochi lexicon are presented to give an impression of the variability of the sources the Bal. words come from. It will be seen that the variation is not found between the dialects only, but also within them. Second, the chapter should provide a picture of the different layers of loanwords (Persian of diverse stages, Indic of diverse sources, other languages) which overlap to a considerable degree, not always along dialect borders.

In the tables which follow, the Balochi word(s) for the concept under discussion are given in their SWBal. form.<sup>2</sup> Where several designations are in use, the sources are given.<sup>3</sup> The words are grouped into the following categories: presumably genuine Balochi words (noted as "old");<sup>4</sup> words where the sound laws of Balochi and of NP would lead to the same result so that it is impossible to decide whether it has been borrowed from NP or genuine (noted as "= NP", cf. p. 19); words of uncertain origin ("?"); and loanwords from NP ("NP"), (NP-)Arabic ("Ar."), Ind. languages ("Ind."), further specified if possible ("Si.", "Ur." etc.) or other languages. A word derived from a NP loanword is noted as "(NP)". Where a borrowing is likely, but the source not sure, a question mark is added. For references to discussion of words in the previous chapters and of those not discussed yet, cf. the index in V.2.

<sup>1</sup> For discussion about selected semantic fields, cf. TURCHETTA 1989 (herbs and spices), ELFENBEIN 1992 (times of the day and length measures) and FILIPPONE 1996 (terms and expressions for denoting space in general).

Regular EBal. forms that differ from the SWBal. forms according to the rules given in II 3.2.1.1.1 are not mentioned separately. If EBal. sources (ABG, DTB, GCD) are given, e.g. "majg in DTB, GCD; SHG; EVM; EAL", that means that DTB, GCD have (EBal.) majg and the rest have (SWBal.) majg. Where EBal. forms are found in other sources than the regular EBal. ones or if SWBal. forms figure in Eastern sources, they will be cited. Other regular variations (e.g. the loss of h in some WBal. dialects, cf. p. 248, the doubling of consonants after  $\bar{\imath}$  and  $\bar{u}$  in SHG, cf. II 3.2.2.1) are not noted either.

The following sources have been used: (predominantly) EBal.: ABG, DTB, GCD; (predominantly) SBal.: FBB, SHG; WBal.: BMC, EVM, NAWATA 1981. Words which are **not** found in EAL are marked with "O" in the WBal. column. If EAL is the only source, it is cited in the WBal. column, since EAL (while by no means limited to words of a specific dialect) has a certain bias towards the Western dialects.

<sup>4</sup> It is possible that some possibly genuine words have been borrowed from older stages of Persian.

### 1. Body parts

It is generally believed in historical linguistics that among those words which tend to be preserved rather than borrowed, the terms in the semantic field of body parts figure among the important ones. The following table shows, however, that this is only partly true for Balochi: genuine words and borrowed ones form a mixture which moreover varies significantly from one dialect to the other. The languages from which material is taken include not only NP and a range of Ind. languages, but also Arabic and Brahui.

The share of genuine words in the field of terms for body parts is much lower than one might expect (less than half of the vocabulary), but still high with respect to the rate found in other fields. The motivation for borrowing is not always clear, neither are semantic differences always noticeable; it might seem quite surprising to find e.g. the use of borrowed  $k\bar{o}nd$  "knee" besides inherited word  $z\bar{a}n$ .

item	Bal.	EBal.	SBal.	WBal.	status
body	jān <sup>5</sup>	DTB	FBB	ВМС	= NP
	$jind(\bar{\imath})$	GCD		EVM	Lhd. <sup>6</sup>
	badan	ABG	SHG	BMC, EVM	NP-Ar.
skin	pōst	GCD	FBB, SHG	EVM	$= NP^7$
	<i>č</i> <sup>h</sup> ill	ABG		0	Si.
	sil		SHG	ВМС	Br.
vein	rag		•	•	NP <sup>8</sup>
blood	hōn				MP

<sup>5</sup> In other sources, *jān* means "life, soul etc.".

<sup>6</sup> EVM and GCD also give the meaning "self" which is also the meaning given in BMC, DTB and SHG. *jind* has been borrowed from Sindhi/Lahnda (GILBERTSON 1925/I:77 etc.), cf. Lhd. *jidā* (TURNER 1966:289; thanks are due to Georg Buddruss for drawing my attention to this connection).

Although it is commonly assumed that *pōst* has been borrowed from NP (GEIGER 1891:458 etc.), this is not a necessary assumption, since OP *pavastā*- "parchment" with which NP *pōst* is connected (BRANDENSTEIN/MAYRHOFER 1964:140, KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:215) might have resulted in Bal. *pōst* as well.

<sup>8</sup> It is probable that *rag* has been borrowed from NP (GEIGER 1891:458) since the Prth. cognate is *rahag*, cf. OInd. *rása-* "juice" (cf. also EWAia II:442).

bone	haḍ(ḍ)				Ur./Si.
joint	$b\bar{o}g^9$				old
head	sar	ABG, DTB	FBB, SHG	BMC, EVM	= NP
	saġar	DTB, GCD			from sar
brain	$magz^{10}$		SHG	0	NP
	mazg		•	•	old?
	majg	DTB, GCD	SHG	EVM	
hair	mūd, mīd		SHG	EVM	old
	māh-par, mahpar	ABG	SHG	BMC, EVM	?11
	gulg		SHG	EVM	old? <sup>12</sup>
	puṭ	GCD		EVM	Br. <sup>13</sup>
forehead	(h)anīčag <sup>14</sup>	DTB, GCD	SHG		old?
	pēšānī <sup>15</sup>		SHG	BMC	NP
eye	čam(m)	old			
	$d\bar{\imath}d(a(g))^{16}$		SHG	BMC	NP

<sup>9</sup> In EBal. (DTB. GCD),  $b\bar{o}g$  means "knot in stalk". EAL also has this meaning.

<sup>10</sup> EAL has magz, FBB magaz, ABG magaz. Cf. also p. 88, 207.

In EAL, the meaning is "hair tress", in SHG "women's long hair". EVM has  $m\bar{a}parr$  "tresses", maybe a popular etymology with NP parr "feather". The etymology of  $m\bar{a}hpar$  is not clear. Maybe there is some connection with Zaz. por, Kurd. por' "hair", but the question remains to be solved. Note that the variant  $m\bar{a}hpar$  is attested not only in BMC and EAL, but also in ABG and SHG. It is thus not likely to be a case of hypercorrect WBal.  $\bar{a}h$  which results from a misinterpretation of the WBal. process  $ah > \bar{a}$  (cf. p. 252f.).

This word means "men's long hair, curls" (for a photo, cf. MATHESON 1967:54a) in SHG and EAL; in this meaning DTB has *gulālax*, SWBal. variants are *gulālik*, *gulāluk* according to EAL. *gulg* etc. might be connected with NP *gulāla* "bullet, ball of thread", Kurd. *gulok* "ball" (perhaps also OInd. *gláu*- "swelling, bump", HORN 1893:207, HÜBSCHMANN 1895:94f., EWAia I:511).

<sup>13</sup> SHG has *put* in the meaning "feather", EAL has both meanings. Bal. *put* "hair; feather" has probably been borrowed from Br. *put* "hair" (EMENEAU/BURROW 1972, ROSSI 1979:109); a semantic shift from "hair" to "feather" is not improbable.

<sup>14</sup> SHG (besides hanīčag) also has the EBal. variant anīšag (replacing EBal. -ag by SWBal. -ag).

<sup>15</sup> EVM and EAL have  $p\bar{e}\bar{s}\bar{a}n\bar{t}$  "brow; destiny"; cf. p. 140.

Also used for "pupil of the eye" (BMC, EAL). In DTB,  $d\bar{\imath}\delta$  means "sight". For the notion of "pupil of the eye" in Ir. languages, cf. FILIPPONE 1995.

eyeball	$d\bar{\imath}d\bar{o}k^{17}$	DTB, GCD	SHG		from dīdag
	$t\bar{e}la(g)^{18}$	DTB		BMC	Ind.?
eyebrow	burwān		•		
eyelash	mičāč	DTB	FBB, SHG		old
	$p^himblar{\iota}$	GCD		0	Si.
ear	gōš				= NP
nose	$p\bar{o}(n)z$	DTB, GCD	FBB, SHG	BMC	= NP
	$g\bar{\imath}n^{19}$			EVM	old
mouth	dap		Pers. <sup>20</sup>		
lip	$lap^{21}$				old
	lab	GCD			NP <sup>22</sup>
	rak(k)	DTB	SHG		Ind.? <sup>23</sup>
	lunṭ	ABG	FBB, SHG	BMC, EVM, NAWATA 1981:34	Ind.? <sup>24</sup>
tooth	dantān		old		
tongue	zubān		SHG	BMC, EVM	= NP
	zawān	ABG, DTB, GCD		0	
	zuwān			EVM O	
	lillik		FBB, SHG		Ind.?

<sup>17</sup> Also for "pupil of the eye" in GCD.

<sup>18</sup> DTB has tīlaġ.

<sup>19</sup> gīn otherwise means "breath" (cf. p. 136).

<sup>20</sup> As shown in II 2.1.2.3fn., dap is a borrowing from some older stage of Persian.

<sup>21</sup> *lap* is apparently attested only once in a manuscript in the British Library, cf. GEIGER 1890:134, so its existence is somewhat questionable.

<sup>22</sup> Although Lat. *labium* goes back to \*lab (HÜBSCHMANN 1895:96), NP *lab* presupposes Ir. \*lap, so Bal. *lab* is a loanword. Zaz. *lew* might go back both to \*lab and \*lap; Kurd. *lêv* may go back to \*lap; the Kurd. outcome of OIr. -b- is not clear (SOCIN 1901:263, ASATRIAN/LIVSHITS 1994:82f.).

<sup>23</sup> rakk appears as "cheek" in BMC. It is not clear whether rak(k) might be connected with rak(k) "protection" (which is an Ind. loanword); one might think of Homeric ἕρχος ὀδόντων "enclosure of the teeth [i.e. mouth]", though.

<sup>24</sup> The retroflex might indicate an Ind. origin of the word, but no suitable form has been found. Maybe there is also some connection with NP *lun* j "lip, cheek".

cheek	kalakk		SHG	BMC	old? <sup>25</sup>
	gub(b)		FBB, SHG		?
	giṭṭā	ABG		0	?
	gal	DTB, GCD		0	Si. <sup>26</sup>
chin	zanūk		SHG	Nawata 1981:34	old
	zanāx	DTB		0	NP? <sup>27</sup>
	sunṭ		FBB, SHG		Lhd. <sup>28</sup>
	$k^{(h)} \bar{a} d\bar{\iota}$	DTB, GCD			Si. <sup>29</sup>
beard	rīš	DTB, GCD	FBB, SHG	BMC, EVM	= NP
neck,	gardin <sup>30</sup>	ABG, DTB, GCD	FBB, SHG	BMC	NP
throat	pōgōx	DTB, GCD			?
	guṭ(ṭ)	GCD	FBB, SHG	BMC, EVM	Ind. <sup>31</sup>

<sup>25</sup> SHG has *kalikk*, EAL has both variants, Brahui has *kalik* according to Rossi 1979:101. The *i* may be due to a reinterpretation of the suffix as the diminutive -*ik(k)*, cf. II 2.4.4.1. Rossi 1979:101 has further attestations of the word in Southern and Western Balochi.

- 26 As DAMES 1891:80 remarks, gal has probably been borrowed from Si. galu.
- According to ELFENBEIN 1985:237, DTB *zanāx* "is an error for *zanax* (LW < NP)". Although this is indeed possible, its attestation only in an EBal. source would be surprising. If the word is correctly noted and not a loanword, it presupposes CBal. \*zanāk which could correspond to Orm. *zināk* (cited in BAILEY 1979:345a). For further data from Ir. languages, cf. NARTEN 1970, EWAia II:801. The -*x* in NP, Prth. *zanax* has nothing to do with EBal. -*x* but shows a suffix substitution comparable to those discussed in KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:203<sup>40</sup>, e.g. NP *malax* vs. Bal. *madag* "locust".

  MAYER 1910 has *zānik* which ELFENBEIN 1985:237 qualifies as being "also wrong" and maybe
- standing for \*zanīk. It is also noted in GCD, however.

  28 sunt means "beak" in BMC and EAL, "sting" in EAL; SHG has all three meanings. EAL also has
- the variant *sunt*. According to ELFENBEIN 1990/II:133, *sunt* has been borrowed from Lhd. *sund*.
- 29 DTB has  $k^h \bar{a} d\bar{\iota}$ , EAL  $k \bar{a} d\bar{\iota}$ , GCD both forms. As DAMES 1891:73 remarks,  $k^h \bar{a} d\bar{\iota}$  is probably a loanword from Si.  $k^h \bar{a} d\bar{\iota}$ .
- 30 DTB, GCD have gardan, for which (and for further variants), cf. p. 195, 285.
- 31 DTB, GCD have  $gut^h$ . gut(t) has most probably been borrowed from some Ind. language (MORGENSTIERNE 1927:27), and the same applies to Br. gut (MORGENSTIERNE 1932:38, against ZARUBIN 1930:660).

GEIGER 1891:421 connects *kalak(k)* with NP *kala* "face, cheek" (its origin is not clear), ELFENBEIN 1961:94<sup>4</sup> notes further Ir. cognates (Bashkardi *kalak* "chin" and Yidgha *kyɛliko* "jaw", which need not be an Ind. loanword as MORGENSTIERNE 1938:221a assumes). Sulaimani Kurd. *kalaka* "flank" is rather to be connected with NP *kalk* "side of the body" (cf. Rossi 1979:101). For the semantics, cf. German *Backe* which denotes both "cheek" and "buttock".

shoulder	kōpag				old
armpit	kaš		SHG	ВМС	= NP
	bagal	GCD	SHG	BMC, EVM	NP
arm	bāsk <sup>32</sup>				old
hand	dast		NP? <sup>33</sup>		
	panjag		SHG	EVM	NP <sup>34</sup>
elbow	srōš <sup>35</sup>	DTB, GCD	SHG		old
	ārunj			NAWATA 1981:34 O	NP <sup>36</sup>
	muk <sup>37</sup>		FBB		?
wrist	muč(č)	DTB, GCD	FBB, SHG		NP? <sup>38</sup>
	karā'ī	GCD		0	Si. <sup>39</sup>

The source is not entirely clear: MORGENSTIERNE 1932:38 assumes Lhd.  $g^hut$  "gulp" while GILBERTSON 1925:681 has Si. nir- $g^hatu$ , cf. also Ur. gat "gulp".

<sup>32</sup> NAWATA 1981:37 has *bāsk* in the meaning "elbow", cf. also p. 166, 168.

<sup>33</sup> dast is also used for "arm" in a number of sources. Bal. dast, Zaz., Kurd. dest etc. seem to have been borrowed from NP dast (GEIGER 1891:447 etc.) since NWIr. languages should show z- here (cf. Av. zasta-, OInd. hásta- etc.). As Parthian has dast as well and since several EIr. languages likewise reflect dasta-, however, an early dissimilation (\*dzasta- > \*dasta- or \*zasta- > \*δasta-) is more likely (KLINGENSCHMITT 1975:77², 2000:200³0, MORGENSTIERNE 2003:45).

<sup>34</sup> panjag has obviously been borrowed from NP panja "hand, claws". DTB has phanjak "one fifth, share of plunder due to a chief", also borrowed from NP; both are derived from NP panj "five". Bal. panč "five" could be genuine (HÜBSCHMANN 1890:560), but since devoicing of word-final consonants is common in loanwords (cf. II 3.3.1.5) and as in fact all numbers seem to have been borrowed from Persian (cf. p. 81), the word is more likely to be a loanword.

<sup>35</sup> For further discussion, cf. p. 131, 180, 188, 200, 205.

MORGENSTIERNE 1932:51 has *ārung* from a Makrani informant. It is probable that *ārunj*, *ārung* have been borrowed from NP *āranj*, *ārang* since the suffix -g / -j (vs. NP *āran*, for cognates, cf. BAILEY 1979:8a, EWAia I:109) seems to be peculiar to Persian, and with regard to Sogd. ''r'ync (KLINGENSCHMITT 1972:63), one might expect genuine Bal. \*ārVnč. For discussion of the Av. forms, cf. KLINGENSCHMITT 1972:63.

<sup>37</sup> muk means "bee's sting" in SHG. EAL has the meanings "elbow joint, knot in wood".

<sup>38</sup> DTB and GCD have  $dast-mu\check{c}^h$  for "wrist" and  $p^h\bar{a}\delta-mu\check{c}^h$  for "ankle". The EBal. form  $mu\check{c}^h$  (not \*muš) and the gemination of the word-final consonant point to the word as being a loanword, maybe from NP  $mu\check{c}$  (ELFENBEIN 1990/II:95). Alternatively,  $mu\check{c}(\check{c})$  might be identical with  $mu\check{c}(\check{c})$  "gathered, collected" (via "handful") which has been borrowed from Si.  $mu\check{c}^hu$  "heap" (DAMES 1891:89, cf. also p. 275).

<sup>39</sup> GILBERTSON 1925:788 assumes Ur. kalā'ī as source, but Si. karā'ī is even more likely.

fist	mušt				$= NP^{40}$
finger, toe	angul			EAL	old <sup>41</sup>
	lankuk <sup>42</sup>	ABG	FBB, SHG	вмс о	Ind.?
	murdān <sup>43</sup>	DTB, GCD		BMC	Ind.?
	čangul <sup>44</sup>			EVM O	Ur.
little finger	čūč	GCD		BMC	Si.? <sup>45</sup>
	čūčūk			EVM	
	čukī		SHG		?46

<sup>40</sup> GEIGER 1891:455 and others assume that *mušt* was borrowed from NP, which is possible, but the genuine Bal. word would be *mušt*, too. For cognates, cf. BAILEY 1979:339a.

MORGENSTIERNE 1932:40 has *angul*, too (from where EAL might have got it). Related words appear in several Ir. languages (cf. Bartholomae 1904:1682, Benveniste 1931:223, Morgenstierne 1932:40); and Windfuhr 1992a:251 notes that \**engul* is found in a number of Central Dialects of Iranian Balochi *angul* is thus less likely to have been borrowed from an Ind. language as one might suppose with regard to OInd. *angúri*-.

<sup>42</sup> ABG and BMC have *lunkuk* (cf. p. 204), SHG and FARRELL 2003:176 have also the variant *lakkuk* (cf. p. 181).

GCD has  $murd\bar{a}nag$  for "the fingers" and expressions with " $murd\bar{a}n$  for the individual fingers. According to the same source, "toe" is  $p^h\bar{a}\delta$ - $murd\bar{a}n$ . The etymology of  $murd\bar{a}n$  is not clear: it might be composed of (GEIGER 1890:136) \*mur = MP/NP/Prth. muhr "seal, signet ring" + " $d\bar{a}n$  "holding". Bal. \*mur is not attested, however (and cannot be derived from OIr. \* $mudr\bar{a}$ -, cf. OInd.  $mudr\bar{a}$ - which is a cognate of NP muhr, cf. KEWA II:653f.), but might have been borrowed from NP (HÜBSCHMANN 1890:558). BARTHOLOMAE's derivation (1890:553) of  $murd\bar{a}n$  from \*murd (OIr. \*mudra-) +  $d\bar{a}n$  holds the same difficulty of \*murd not being attested. ELFENBEIN 1990/II:100 assumes that  $murd\bar{a}n$  has been borrowed from some Ind. language, but the source is not clear. The variant  $m\bar{o}rd\bar{a}nag$  appears only in BMC and EAL which makes it possible that it is due to the assumption by BMC that  $murd\bar{a}n$  is based on a more genuine \* $muhrd\bar{a}n$  which might have a variant with - $\bar{o}$ - for -uh- (for hypercorrect reversal of  $uh > \bar{o}$ , cf. p. 211).

<sup>44</sup> The other sources have *čangul* in its original meaning "claw".

<sup>45</sup> In BMC,  $\check{cu}\check{c}$  means also "sprout, baby plant". EAL has  $\check{cu}\check{c}\bar{\imath}$ ,  $\check{cu}\check{c}ag$ ,  $\check{cu}\check{c}ik$  as additional variants.  $\check{cu}\check{c}$ , if not an onomatopoetic formation, might have been borrowed from Si.  $\check{ci}\check{c}a$  with a hypercorrect reversal of the change  $\bar{u} > \bar{\imath}$  (cf. p. 196ff.).  $\check{cu}\check{c}\bar{u}k$  etc. can be specialisations of  $\check{cu}\check{c}ag$  "child, baby; tiny" (SHG) which might also be of onomatopoetic origin.

<sup>46</sup> In GCD, *čukī* is used for "finger" in general. SHG also has the variant *čunkī* (for secondary nasalisation, cf. p. 215ff.). Maybe *čukī* is derived from *čuk(k)* "child" (cf. p. 259), cf. the discussion of *čūčūk* etc. above.

nail	nākun <sup>47</sup>	DTB, GCD	FBB, SHG		= NP
	nāhun <sup>48</sup>	GCD	SHG	EVM	NP
ribs	$pahl\bar{u}(g)^{49}$				NP/MP
chest,	sēnag	DTB, GCD	SHG		old
breast	sīna <sup>50</sup>		SHG		NP
	gōdān		SHG	EVM	old <sup>51</sup>
	dōbar	DTB, GCD			?52
	ḍōbar		SHG	BMC	
	gwar <sup>53</sup>		SHG	BMC, NAWATA 1981:37	old
navel, bellybutton	nāpag <sup>54</sup>	ABG, DTB, GCD	SHG	BMC, NAWATA 1981:37	old
	dun(n)		FBB, SHG	0	Si. <sup>55</sup>

<sup>47</sup> GCD has  $nak^hun$  (sic) with the  $-k^h$ - (instead of EBal. -x-) indicating a borrowing, whereas DTB has  $n\bar{a}xun$  which, if not directly borrowed from NP  $n\bar{a}xun$ , is the EBal. variant of  $n\bar{a}kun$ .

<sup>48</sup> GCD's *nahun* is perhaps an error.

<sup>49</sup> For variants, cf. p. 163f., 166, 197, 268.

<sup>50</sup> ABG, EVM have sīnag.

DTB has *gwaδān* besides regular *gōδān*, GCD has *gwaδān*, *gwaðān*. In both sources, the word means "udder" (this meaning is also noted in SHG). EBal. *gwa*- is perhaps the result of an analogy to *gwar* "breast". The etymology is "containing milk" with the cognate of Av. *gao*° "(product of) cow: milk, meat" (GEIGER 1890:124), cf. Av. *gaoδana*- (sic) "milk container" (BARTHOLOMAE 1904:481). It is remarkable that Bal. preserves OIr. *gau*- in the meaning "milk" here. Another Bal. compound with the same first member is *gōkurt* "sulphur" (cf. p. 146).

<sup>52</sup>  $d\bar{o}bar$  is probably a compound of  $d\bar{o}$  "two" and NP bar "breast" (the cognate of Bal. gwar). For d > d, cf. p. 99. If so, Eastern Balochi must have borrowed the word from SWBal. dialects.

In DTB and GCD, *gwar* means "neck" (maybe meant as "throat"). The obl. of *gwar* (*gwarā*) is used as a postposition in the meaning "near, at". According to Elfenbein 1985:232, *gur* noted in DAMES 1881:133 is a "substandard form, common to all dialects", but it is not noted anywhere else, not even in DAMES 1891. Cf. also p. 99.

<sup>54</sup> MORGENSTIERNE 1932:48 and EAL also have *nāp*.

The word has obviously been borrowed from Si. *dunu*. For d > d, cf. II 3.1.1.4, for gemination of word-final consonants in loanwords, cf. II 3.3.1.5.

back	pušt	DTB, GCD	SHG	BMC, EVM	= NP
	baḍ(ḍ)		FBB, SHG	EVM, NAWATA 1981:34	Br. <sup>56</sup>
waist, loins,	srēn <sup>57</sup>	DTB	FBB, SHG	EVM, NAWATA 1981:34	old
small of back	myān	ABG	SHG	ВМС	NP <sup>58</sup>
	mugūnḍ <sup>59</sup>			ВМС	?
bottom, anus	kūn, kīn				$= NP^{60}$
stomach, belly	lāp	ABG, DTB, GCD	FBB, SHG	BMC, EVM	?61
	uškumag	EVM			= NP
	šikam	ABG	SHG		
	piḍḍ			EVM ○	Br.? <sup>62</sup>
heart	zird <sup>63</sup>	DTB, GCD	SHG	BMC, NAWATA 1981:34	old
	dil	ABG, DTB, GCD	FBB, SHG	BMC, EVM	NP
liver	jagar			•	NP

<sup>56</sup> bad(d) is the upper part of the back. It also means "load (on someone's back)" (thus in BMC, EAL).
bad also exists in Brahui and might be connected to words for "carry" etc.; but a borrowing from Balochi into Brahui is also possible (Rossi 1979:91). The etymology is then not clear yet, though.

<sup>57</sup> For variants, cf. p. 205, for further discussion, cf. p. 130, 202.

<sup>58</sup> *myān* is a loanword from NP *miyān* "middle". Another product of NP *miyān* is Bal. *nyām* "middle" (cf. p. 232f., 266).

<sup>59</sup> *mugūnd* is designated as EBal. by BMC and EAL (note that it is not found in ABG, DTB or GCD). In EAL, it means "thigh", and the variant *mugūnd* (which, if it exists, might be Eastern Balochi although it is not noted as such) means "small of back".

<sup>60</sup> With regard to the existence of MP  $k\bar{u}n$  (HORN 1893:195) and Sogd. kwn (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1976:66), it is not necessary to assume (pace GEIGER 1891:444) that Bal.  $k\bar{u}n$  has been borrowed from NP.

<sup>61</sup> The SWBal. form  $l\bar{a}p$  is also found in EBal. (GCD), and the EBal. form ( $l\bar{a}f$ ) also in Karachi (FBB). In SHG,  $l\bar{a}p$  is also used for "intestines". The obl.  $l\bar{a}p\bar{a}$  is used as a postposition "in". The etymology is not clear yet. The only words which have been considered as possible cognates are NP lambar "bottom" and Gurani lam "belly" (GEIGER 1890:134). However, the connection is questionable (note that Kurd. lam means "cheek").

<sup>62</sup> SHG has  $g\bar{o}\check{s}$ - $\bar{e}$  pidd "lobe of the ear". pid "belly" also exists in Brahui from where it might have been borrowed into Balochi (if not vice-versa); Emeneau/Burrow say that the word might be of Dravidian origin, but this is not sure (ROSSI 1979:107).

<sup>63</sup> zird is mainly used for poetic purposes, in normal language, dil is used.

kidney	guṭ(ṭ)ag <sup>64</sup>				old
intestines	rōt, rōtĭnk	DTB	SHG	EVM	old
	$r\bar{o}\delta$	GCD		0	NP
	jūŗ			вмс о	Ind.? <sup>65</sup>
spleen	ispulk	DTB, GCD			MP
	dilū'īg		SHG	0	?66
vulva, vagina	kus				NP <sup>67</sup>
penis	kēr	DTB, GCD	SHG	NAWATA 1981:34	$= NP^{68}$
	bar(r)			BMC	NP?
testicles	gund	0			$= NP^{69}$
foot, leg	pād <sup>70</sup>				old

- EAL also has  $k\bar{\imath}r$  while all other sources which have the word note only  $k\bar{e}r$ . The vowel  $\bar{e}$  seen in Balochi as well as in NP does not match the possible cognates (Khot.  $k\bar{\imath}ra$ -, Bīābānakī  $k\bar{\imath}r$  etc., cf. BAILEY 1979:62b) which point to \* $\bar{\imath}$  BAILEY (1979:62b) therefore assumes a protoform \*kuria-, as a parallel case to MPZ <tyl> "butter" (a cognate of Av.  $t\bar{\imath}i$ -iia-). As the reading of the latter as \*/ $t\bar{e}r$ / is only an assumed one (maybe argumenti causa by Bailey himself), it does not seem clear whether \*kuria- would indeed give NP  $k\bar{e}r$  and Sogd. kyr (noted in SIMS-WILLIAMS 1976:66), and whether  $k\bar{e}r$  may be a genuine Bal. word. Note also that \*ruia is likely to yield MP/NP  $\bar{\imath}r$  (cf.  $p\bar{\imath}r$  "old"), but Bal. ir (cf. p. 149).
- 69 According to Rossi 2002:156ff., NP *gund* ultimately derives from an Ir. word \*gund-"circular object etc." (cf. e.g. Av. *gunda-* "dough" etc.). The Bal. word may have been borrowed from NP (thus GEIGER 1891:449). In ELFENBEIN 1983, it has the form *gund*, maybe influenced by *kund* etc. (see below, for *nd* > *nd*, cf. also p. 182).
- FVM  $pad\bar{u}n$  is an error for  $p\bar{a}d\bar{u}n$ . The text EVM refers to (ZARUBIN 1932:28) has  $p\bar{a}d\bar{u}nai$  (gen.pl.) which looks as if the gen.sg. ending -ai was added to a pl. morpheme  $-\bar{u}n$  (cf. the NP pl. morpheme  $-\bar{u}n$  which is pronounced  $-\bar{u}n$  in some dialects); the expected form of a gen.pl. would be  $p\bar{a}d\bar{a}ni$  (for shortening of word-final vowels in Turkmen Balochi, cf. p. 251).

<sup>64</sup> GCD and NAWATA 1981:34 have guttig, EAL and SHG have guttag.

<sup>65</sup> Maybe  $j\bar{u}r$  (not found in any source but BMC) is derived from  $j\bar{o}r$  "well, healthy, constructed" (which is from Ur.  $j\bar{o}r$  "joining, joined, connection etc.", or its cognates, e.g. Si.  $j\bar{o}d$  "addition").

<sup>66</sup> There is one vocalisation mark missing in the entry in SHG, so it is not clear whether *dilū'īg* or *dilō'īg* is intended, but the former seems more likely. The word is obviously a derivative of *dil* "heart", although the formation is not entirely clear.

<sup>67</sup> Since PIE \*kp, \*ks (PIIr. \*cš) gives Bal. š (cf. p. 92, KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:208), kus must indeed have been borrowed from NP as stated by GEIGER 1891:444. For a discussion of the cognates of kus, cf. SIMS-WILLIAMS 1979:134.

thigh, leg	ling		SHG	ВМС	= NP
	rān	DTB, GCD	FBB, SHG		$= NP^{71}$
knee	$z\bar{a}n(uk)^{72}$	GCD	SHG	EVM, NAWATA 1981:34	old
	kōnḍ	DTB, GCD	FBB, SHG		old? <sup>73</sup>
	gōḍ			ВМС	= Si. <sup>74</sup>
heel	pūnz <sup>75</sup>				?

<sup>71</sup> *rān* could of course be a NP loanword as GEIGER 1891:458 assumes, but since Av. *rāna*- would produce the same result in Balochi, it might also be genuine.

<sup>72</sup> According to GCD, zān is also used for "thigh"; in DTB, this is the only meaning.

<sup>73</sup> EAL has *kunḍ*. According to Rossi 2002:158ff., Bal. *kōnḍ* may derive from Ir. \*kunda- "knee" (its ultimate origin does not seem clear). If so, the vowel of *kōnḍ* must have been influenced by *gōḍ*. The ḍ of the variant *kunḍ* (EAL) and in similar terms for body parts (*kūnḍuk* (BMC) "lower part of back", *kunḍōšk* (Morgenstierne 1932:51) "elbow") might be due to (if not even derived from) *kunḍ* "corner, edge" which is likely to have been borrowed from Si. *kunḍa* "corner" (ELFENBEIN 1990/II:81). *kōnḍ* (BMC, EVM, SHG) "cave, hole; lair" (of Ind. origin, cf. p. 216) may be somehow related as well (cf. p. 216).

<sup>74</sup> MORGENSTIERNE 1932c:127 has *gunḍuk*. According to MORGENSTIERNE 1932c:16, *gōḍ* is likely to be of Ind. origin; it might indeed have been borrowed from Si. *gōḍō*. Rossi's opinion about the word does not seem to emerge clearly from ROSSI 2002:160, 163.

<sup>75</sup> For variants, cf. p. 197, 214, 242.

## 2. Kinship terms

The terms for family members<sup>76</sup> are another field which plays a major role in historical studies of languages. Moreover, the choice of relations for which a given language has a specific word has often been taken to reveal important facts about the social structure of the community. Thus, in addition to the sources used throughout this chapter, data from three not mainly linguistically oriented works from different regions are taken into account as well, namely PEHRSON 1966:36ff. (abbreviated Pe here for the sake of saving space) who studied the Marrī Baloch (EBal. dialect), PASTNER 1978:269ff. (Pa here) who collected data in Panjgur (WBal. dialect)<sup>77</sup> and RZEHAK 1991:185f. (abbreviated Rz) studying the Baloch of Turkmenistan (WBal. dialect).

Although the relationship of kinship terminology to social organisation is a complex one (cf. PASTNER 1978:268 for references), the comparison of the terms and their usage in neighbouring dialects or languages might be linked to parallel differences in social organisation. It turns out that tribal structure and pastoral lifestyle (thus in many EBal.speaking areas) as contrasted with the sedentary life in feudal social structure (Makran) is reflected by the vocabulary used (PASTNER 1978:268ff.).

It is noteworthy that words for relationships which play an important role in Baloch social organisation turn out to have been borrowed, e.g. the distinction between father's brother and mother's brother and the corresponding sisters. Some of these surprising findings might be explained by changes in family structures, e.g. it is possible that for some time, only father's relations played a role, so  $tr\bar{u}$  and  $n\bar{a}k\bar{o}$  came to denote "aunt" and "uncle" in general; when the necessity arose to have words also for mother's relations, these were borrowed. The reasons for some other phenomena, e.g. the missing distinction in by far most dialects between grandparents from the mother's side and the father's side remain unclear.

<sup>76</sup> For a discussion of Bal. household structures, cf. FERRARO 1990.

<sup>77</sup> Note that Pe and Pa omit the majority of diacritics.

primary relationships	Bal.	EBal.	SBal.	WBal.	status
great-grandfather	parḍāḍā <sup>78</sup>	Pe	FBB	0	Si./Ur.
grandmother	nak(k)	DTB, GCD	SHG	0	old
	balluk <sup>79</sup>		FBB, SHG	BMC, NAWATA 1981:35, Pa, Rz	Br.
mother's mother	nānī <sup>80</sup>	Pe		0	Si./Ur.
father's mother	तृंवतृंग	GCD, Pe		0	Si.
grandfather	pīruk <sup>81</sup>	DTB, GCD	SHG	BMC, NAWATA 1981:35, Pa, Rz	(NP)
mother's father	nānā, nānō	GCD, Pe		0	Si./Ur. <sup>82</sup>
father's father	ḍāḍā <sup>83</sup>	ABG, Pe	FBB	0	Si./Ur.
	bābū	Pe		Rz O	(NP?) <sup>84</sup>

<sup>78</sup> In FBB, pardādā means "great-great-grandfather" (cf. also below on dādā).

<sup>79</sup> EAL also has the forms *ballū* and *ballī*, the latter is noted as a term of address for grandmothers in Rz. The three forms show different adaptations of Br. *balla*. According to Rz, *balluk* may also refer to grandmother's or grandfather's sister and grandmother's or grandfather's brother's wife. Rz also has *bun-balluk* "great-grandmother"; the first member of this word is *bun* "root, fundament, bottom" which may be the product of two words, on the one hand *bun* (Av. *būna*- "bottom, fundament"), on the other the NP loanword *bun* "root, trunk of tree", which has been explained as a cognate of OInd. *ván(a)*- "tree, wood", MP *wan* (the genuine Bal. cognate is *gwan* "pistacchio", cf. p. 99). It is not sure, however, whether there is indeed a trace of the second word present in Bal. *bun*.

<sup>80</sup> Pe also has  $n\bar{a}n\bar{o}$  which, however, should rather mean "grandfather" (see below).

<sup>81</sup> Rz has  $p\bar{\imath}ruk$  also in the senses of grandmother's or grandfather's brother and grandmother's or grandfather's sister's husband. A derivative of  $p\bar{\imath}ruk$  is  $bun-p\bar{\imath}ruk$  "great-grandfather" (Rz). In addition, there is  $p\bar{\imath}r\bar{o}$  "grandfather's brother" (Rz) and  $p^hit^h-p^h\bar{\imath}r\bar{\imath}$  "forefather" (DTB).

<sup>82</sup> In GCD,  $n\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ ,  $n\bar{a}n\bar{o}$  are used for both grandfathers. Ur.  $n\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ , Si.  $n\bar{a}n\bar{o}$  mean "maternal grandfather".

<sup>83</sup> FBB has dādā "great-grandfather" and pardādā "great-grandfather" vs. the data from the other sources and the Si. and Ur. words (Si. dādō, Ur. dādā "paternal grandfather", Si. pardādō, Ur. pardādā "paternal great-grandfather"), so it seems that there is some error involved with FBB's terminology, probably based on the existence of pīruk in Karachi Balochi (which otherwise occurs in those dialects which do not distinguish the different sorts of grandparents) and/or on the use of dādā as a term of address for (very) old men (note that Pe has dādā in brackets as an alternative designation of "great-grandfather" and also as term for father's father's brother).

<sup>84</sup> According to Pe,  $b\bar{a}b\bar{u}$  is used for father's father and for father's brother. Rz has  $b\bar{a}b\bar{u}$  as a term of address for "grandfather" and "grandfather's brother".  $b\bar{a}b\bar{u}$  may be the product of a secondary differentiation (by means of suffix substitution) of  $b\bar{a}b\bar{a}$  (see below).

mother	māt	ABG, DTB, GCD, Pe	FBB, SHG	ВМС	old
	$m\bar{a}s^{85}$	ABG	SHG	BMC, EVM, NAWATA 1981:35, Pa, Rz	old
father	pit	ABG, DTB, GCD, Pe	FBB, SHG		old
	pis(s)		SHG	BMC, EVM, NAWATA 1981:35, Pa, Rz	old
	bābā	Pe	SHG	EVM, Rz	$= NP^{86}$
	abbā	ABG, DTB, Pe	SHG		Ar. <sup>87</sup>
	abbō			вмс о	

EAL's assumption that  $m\bar{a}s\bar{\imath}$  "aunt" (see below) might have something to do with  $m\bar{a}s$  "mother" is not to be preferred. Note, however, that  $m\bar{a}s\bar{\imath}$  is also used as a term of address for mother in Rz (SHG has  $m\bar{a}m\bar{e}$  for that purpose), which might show that there is some reinterpretation of Ind.  $m\bar{a}s\bar{\imath}$  as derivative from  $m\bar{a}s$  done also by the Baloch themselves, maybe motivated by the fact that specification of aunts and uncles is not deemed necessary in WBal. dialects.

In addition to (or instead of) the genuine words for members of the core family (*māt, mās* etc.), the NP designations are used in Iranian Balochi and some other dialects (cf. p. 242, 257, MORGENSTIERNE 1948:284 notes the NP words for the Dehwārī dialect); isolated occurrences in other dialects are *duxtar* "daughter" in EVM and *birāðar* "brother" in DTB.

- 86  $b\bar{a}b\bar{a}$  is used as a term of address for "father" according to Rz (SHG 751 has  $b\bar{a}b\bar{e}$  in that function), it means "child" according to EVM and EAL, "son" in EVM and "elder man, grandfather" in EAL and SHG. Pe has  $b\bar{a}b\bar{a}$  for father, father's brother, father's brother (for all those, alternative terms are noted as well) and the latter's son. The word might have been borrowed from NP where  $b\bar{a}b\bar{a}$  means "father, grandfather" and is also used to address one's children (probably meant as "father['s child], father['s darling]").
- 87  $abb\bar{a}$  is also used as a respectful form of address for (elder) men according to EAL. According to DTB, it is used by children, however, and BMC glosses  $abb\bar{o}$  as "daddy".
  - The precise route of wandering of this word is not entirely clear. ROSSI 1979:297 notes that Br.  $ab\bar{a}$  might have been borrowed from Balochi or from an Ind. language (cf. Si.  $ab\bar{o}$ ). The word is likely to derive ultimately from Ar. ab.

<sup>85</sup> BMC remarks that *māt* is "makrani" (SBal.) which is not entirely correct. It is striking that the other terms in -t, i.e. *pit*, *brāt* and *zāmāt*, are not noted by BMC. For the distribution of the forms in -s, cf. p. 250.

 $m\bar{a}s$  and the other three forms in -s(s) (for the etymology, cf. p. 89) are noted as secondary forms to those in -t in SHG.

aunt	trū		FBB, SHG	BMC, EVM, Pa, Rz	old
	$tr\bar{t}^{88}$	DTB, GCD	FBB, SHG	0	
	tātī			Rz O	$?^{89}$
mother's sister	māsī	ABG, DTB, GCD, Pe	FBB, SHG		Si./Ur. <sup>90</sup>
father's sister	рирī	Pe	FBB	0	Si./Ur.
uncle	nākō <sup>91</sup>	ABG, DTB, GCD	FBB, SHG	BMC, EVM, Rz o	old
mother's brother	māmā <sup>92</sup>	DTB, GCD, Pe	FBB		Si./Ur.
father's	kākā <sup>93</sup>		FBB, SHG	EVM	Ur.
brother	čāčā	Pe		0	Si.
sister	gwahār		SHG		old
	gu(h)ār	ABG		ВМС	
	gwār	Pe	FBB	EVM, NAWATA 1981:37, Pa, Rz	
	gōhār	DTB, GCD			
	dādā		FBB, SHG	EVM, Rz O	Si. <sup>94</sup>

<sup>88</sup> In DTB, GCD and EVM, the word denotes father's sister. This must indeed be the original meaning when judging by the etymology (cf. p. 124f.). In the other sources, however, *trū*, *trī* is used for father's as well as mother's sister, in Pa and SHG also for spouse's mother (thus also MORGENSTIERNE 1932:51), in Pa and Rz for uncle's wife.

<sup>89</sup> *tātī* is also an address term for aunts, mothers-in-law and stepmothers (Rz). In the Dehwārī dialect, *tātā* (MORGENSTIERNE 1948:284), *tātē* (GRIERSON 1921:453) are used for different kinds of aunts. *tāta* also exists in Brahui; etymology and direction of borrowing are not clear (ROSSI 1979:114).

<sup>90</sup> Sindhi and Urdu have māsī "maternal aunt". Cf. also mās above.

<sup>91</sup> Similarly to  $tr\bar{u}$ ,  $tr\bar{t}$  (see above),  $n\bar{a}k\bar{o}$  means "father's brother" in DTB and GCD and both uncles in the other sources, according to ABG, FBB, BMC and Pa also "father-in-law", according to Pa and Rz, also "aunt's husband" and term of address for stepfather and father-in-law. GCD  $n\acute{a}kho$  instead of  $n\acute{a}\underline{k}ho$  (GCD's representation of what would be  $n\bar{a}x\bar{o}$  here) is probably an error, cf. his regular EBal.  $n\acute{a}\underline{k}hoz\acute{a}\underline{k}ht$  "cousin" (see below). For SHG  $n\bar{a}k\bar{u}(g)$ , cf. p. 201.

<sup>92</sup> māmā is also used for addressing (elder) men (EAL), Pe also has it for mother's brother's son.

<sup>93</sup> In EVM, both  $n\bar{a}k\bar{o}$  and  $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}$  are noted for "uncle" without any differentiation. In SHG,  $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}$  means "any sort of uncle; eldest brother". Rz has  $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}$  as a term of address for father-in-law.

<sup>94</sup> According to SHG,  $d\bar{a}d\bar{a}$  is the term of address for an elder sister (on p. 751, SHG notes  $d\bar{a}d\bar{e}$  as child's name for sister), according to Rz, for sisters in general. Sindhi has  $d\bar{a}d\bar{t}$  "elder sister" and  $d\bar{a}d\bar{o}$  "elder brother", Urdu has  $d\bar{a}d\bar{a}$  "paternal grandfather, elder brother" from which Bal.  $d\bar{a}d\bar{a}$ 

brother	brāt <sup>95</sup>	ABG, DTB, GCD, Pe	FBB, SHG		old
	brās		SHG	BMC, EVM, NAWATA 1981:7, Pa, Rz	old
	lālā			EVM, Rz	Ur./NP <sup>96</sup>
	lālō	DTB			1
daughter <sup>97</sup>	janik(k)	DTB, GCD, Pe	SHG		(old)
	jinik(k)	ABG	FBB	BMC, EVM, NAWATA 1981:35, Pa, Rz	
	dut(t)uk		SHG		old
	$dut(t)ag^{98}$		SHG	BMC, EVM	
son	bač(č)	DTB, GCD, Pe	SHG	ВМС	NP
	bačak(k) <sup>99</sup>			BMC, EVM, Pa, Rz	
	bačik(k)		FBB, SHG	0	
	pus(s)ag	ABG, DTB	SHG		old
child	čuk(k)	DTB, GCD	FBB, SHG		Ind.?
	zahg		SHG	ВМС	old?
	$z\bar{a}g^{100}$			BMC, EVM, NAWATA 1981:35, Rz	
	$aul\bar{a}d^{101}$				NP-Ar.

<sup>&</sup>quot;grandfather" (see above) has been borrowed.

<sup>95</sup> For variants, cf. p. 194, 205.

<sup>96</sup> The word means "master, teacher of the master's children, slave" in NP and Urdu, which fits well with the data from Rz, who has  $l\bar{a}l\bar{a}$  as a term of address for brothers (SHG has  $l\bar{a}l\bar{e}$  in that function).

<sup>97</sup> The words for "daughter" and "son" are also used for "girl" and "boy", respectively.

<sup>98</sup> For the semantics, cf. p. 241.

<sup>99</sup> EAL *baččak* is probably the result of a contamination of *bač(č)* and *bačak(k)*. Rz's variant *bačag* shows the suffix -ag (cf. II 2.4.4.1) instead of the diminutive suffix.

<sup>100</sup> For WBal.  $ah > \bar{a}$ , cf. p. 252ff.

<sup>101</sup> aulād, although an Ar. plural form, means "child, offspring" (cf. also p. 266).

child	$^{\circ}z\bar{a}tk^{102}$			BMC	old
	°zatk		FBB, SHG	0	
	°zāxt	DTB, GCD, Pe			
	$^{\circ}z\bar{a}k^{103}$			EVM, Pa o	
grandchild	nawāsag <sup>104</sup>	DTB, GCD, Pe	SHG		NP
	n(u)wāsag			EVM, Rz o	
	nimāsag		FBB, SHG	Pa	Psht.? <sup>105</sup>
	$\check{c}uk^h$ - $z\bar{a}xt^{106}$	DTB, GCD			see above
great-grandchild	kuṛāsag <sup>107</sup>	GCD, Pe	SHG		Psht.
	kōrāsag		FBB	0	
	kawāsag	GCD, Pe			Psht.
	bar-nwās <sup>108</sup>			Rz O	
great-great- grandchild	naptag		FBB	0	old <sup>109</sup>

<sup>102</sup> These four variants are used, as will be shown below, to form compounds of the sort "aunt's child", i.e. "cousin".

<sup>103</sup> For  $z\bar{a}k$ , cf. p. 185. Rz uses  ${}^{\circ}z\bar{a}g$  for the purposes for which the other sources have  ${}^{\circ}z\bar{a}tk$  etc.

<sup>104</sup> In Pe, *nawāsaġ* also means "brother's grandchild". GCD has *nawāsaġ* "grandson" and *nawāsaġīn* "granddaughter".

<sup>105</sup> For a discussion of nimāsag, cf. p. 234.

<sup>106</sup> Additional variants are  $\check{c}ug$ - $z\bar{a}xt$  (DTB) and  $\check{c}u\dot{g}$ - $z\bar{a}xt$  (GCD) showing an assimilation. The word literally means "child's child". For  $\check{c}uk(k)$  "child" and  ${}^{\circ}z\bar{a}xt$  (EBal. form of WBal.  $z\bar{a}tk$ ), see above.

<sup>107</sup> Note that in those sources which have *kuṛāsag* as well as *kawāsag* (probably borrowed from different Pashto dialects, cf. p. 234), the former has come to mean "great-great-grandchild". Brahui has *kūṛāsa* "great-grandchild" (Rossi 1979:28).

<sup>108</sup> This word is obviously composed of a suffixless variant of  $n(u)w\bar{a}sag$  "grandchild" (see above) and NP bar "on" (cf. p. 194), parallel to Rz's bun-balluk,  $bun-p\bar{\iota}ruk$  "great-grandmother, -father" (see above) and  $parn\bar{a}k\bar{o}-z\bar{a}xt$  (see below).

<sup>109</sup> It is noteworthy that the genuine Bal. cognate of OInd. obl. náptar- is preserved.

derived relationships	Bal.	EBal.	SBal.	WBal.	status
mother's brother's wife	тāтī	Pe	FBB	0	Si./Ur.
father's brother's	kākī		FBB	0	Ur.
wife	čāčī	Pe		0	Si.
cousin: aunt's child	trū-zātk <sup>110</sup>	DTB, GCD, Pe	FBB	BMC, Pa, Rz	see
cousin: uncle's child	nākō-zātk <sup>111</sup>	ABG, DTB, GCD, Pe	FBB, SHG	BMC, Pa, Rz	above
cousin: father's brother's child	māmā-bač	Pe			
uncle's grandchild	parnākō- zāxt <sup>112</sup>	Pe		Pa O	
sister's child	gwahār-zātk	DTB, GCD, Pe	FBB, SHG	BMC, Pa, Rz	
brother's child	brā-zātk <sup>113</sup>	DTB, GCD, Pe	FBB, SHG	EVM, Pa, Rz	

<sup>110</sup> In this compound and the following ones, form and meaning of both members correspond to those of the simple words in the respective sources (see above).

<sup>111</sup> Note that  $n\bar{a}k\bar{o}z\bar{a}xt$  also occurs in Pe (as father's brother's child and father's brother's grandchild) where Ind. terms for uncles have been substituted for  $n\bar{a}k\bar{o}$ .

<sup>112</sup> Pa has the term for father's and mother's brother's grandchild, Pe only for father's brother's grandchild (the other uncle's grandchild not being mentioned). For Bal. *par*, cf. p. 139.

<sup>113</sup> Note that the final consonant of  $br\bar{a}t / br\bar{a}s$  "brother" has been assimilated totally to the following consonant in all dialect forms of this word. In Pe, the word also denotes brother's grandchild.

spouse and	spouse and his/her relations								
wife <sup>114</sup>	jan <sup>115</sup>		FBB, SHG	BMC, EVM, NAWATA 1981:35	old				
	<i>janēn</i>		FBB, SHG	Pa					
	jinēn <sup>116</sup>			Rz					
	$z\bar{a}l^{117}$	ABG, GCD, Pe	SHG		NP				
	$l\bar{o}g\bar{\imath}$		FBB, SHG	ВМС	(Ind.) <sup>118</sup>				
husband <sup>119</sup>	mard	ABG, GCD, Pe	FBB, SHG	BMC, NAWATA 1981:35, Pa, Rz	NP				
	lōgē wāja		FBB		(Ind.) <sup>120</sup>				
	lōg-wāja	DTB	SHG						

<sup>114</sup> Terms of address for one's spouse include expressions like čukānī māt / pit (FBB) "mother/father of the children" or X-gen. mās / pis "mother / father of X", X being the name of the eldest son (Rz); the latter sort of expression is also used as a general form of address for women (BADALKHAN 2003:293). If there is no son, the name of the eldest daughter may be used (Carina Jahani, personal communication). This practice reflects name taboos which are widespread in the area (for further discussion and references, cf. BADALKHAN 2003:292ff.). When the couple gets older, the taboo is less strong, and first names or (thus Rz) the expressions pīrazāl / pīramard may be used (from pīr "old", cf. p. 149, + zāl / mard).

<sup>115</sup> jan is also the common word for "woman".

<sup>116</sup> The two latter words which show an enlargement by the adj. suffix -ēn might be explained as standing for "relating to women; womenfolk", with the collective expression also used for the individual as in German *Frauenzimmer*. For the palatalisation seen in jinēn, cf. p. 194.

<sup>117</sup> zāl also means "(old) woman". For zālbūl, cf. p. 202.

<sup>118</sup> BMC notes that  $l\bar{o}g\bar{\tau}$  is from "makrani" (i.e. SBal.), which is confirmed by the other attestations.  $l\bar{o}g\bar{\tau}$  is derived from  $l\bar{o}g$  "house" (cf. p. 159). Another expression formed from  $l\bar{o}g$  is  $l\bar{o}g$ - $b\bar{a}nuk$  "housewife" (for  $b\bar{a}nuk$  "lady", cf. p. 164).

<sup>119</sup>  $gir\bar{o}k$  noted by EVM as meaning "husband" occurs only once, and is more probably meant literally as "the one who takes, i.e. marries [a certain woman]"  $(gir - + agentive suffix - \bar{o}k)$ .

<sup>120</sup> *lōg-wāja* is not noted as a separate lemma in SHG, but is used e.g. in the explanation of *zāmāt* (for which see below) in the meaning "husband". This expression means literally "master of the house" and is composed of *lōg* "house" (see above) and *wāja* "master, Sir" which has been borrowed from NP (GEIGER 1891:462, thus also EAL who erroneously has *wājah*. According to Friedrich C. Andreas (apud LENTZ 1926:293), NP *x<sup>w</sup>āja* is a sort of allegro form of \*xua-taua- (which otherwise gives NP *xudā*). If this interpretation is correct, NP *x<sup>w</sup>*- was replaced by Bal. *w*- in the borrowing process (the other example for this phenomenon is *wāb* "sleep", which is different in that there are inherited Bal. words from the same root, cf. p. 122f.).

mother-in-law	$was(s)\bar{u}(g)$	ABG	FBB, SHG	BMC, NAWATA 1981:5, Pa, Rz	old
	$was(s)\bar{\imath}(g)$	DTB, GCD, Pe	FBB, SHG		
father-in- law <sup>121</sup>	wasirk <sup>122</sup>	ABG, Pe	SHG	BMC, EVM, NAWATA 1981:5, Rz	old
	was(a)rik <sup>123</sup>	DTB, GCD			
spouse's	wasir-zā(t)k	Pe		EVM, Rz	see
brother	wasar-zāxt <sup>124</sup>	DTB, GCD			above
spouse's sister	duksīč, duskīč <sup>125</sup>	Pe	FBB, SHG	BMC, EVM, Pa, Rz	old
brother's / son's wife	nišār <sup>126</sup>	GCD, Pe	FBB, SHG	NAWATA 1981:5, Pa, Rz	old
sister's / daughter's	zāmāt	ABG, DTB, GCD, Pe	FBB, SHG		old
husband	zāmās <sup>127</sup>			BMC, EVM, NAWATA 1981:5, Pa, Rz	old

<sup>121</sup> Note that in a number of dialects,  $n\bar{a}k\bar{o}$  "uncle" is also used in this meaning (see above).

<sup>122</sup> In SHG and EAL, wasirk also means spouse's brother (husband's brother in Pe); this is the only meaning in Pa where  $n\bar{a}k\bar{o}$  is used for father-in-law. MORGENSTIERNE's (1932:52) rendering as "mother-in-law" seems to be an error.

<sup>123</sup> For EAL's wasarix, cf. p. 208. Cf. also p. 228.

<sup>124</sup> wasar-zāxt means "sister/brother-in-law" in GCD, wasir-zāxt is "wife's brother" in Pe.

<sup>125</sup>  $dusk\bar{\iota}\check{c}$  commonly means "wife's / husband's sister" (in BMC also "brother's wife"). FBB notes it in the meaning "wives of brothers". For more discussion, cf. p. 90, 178, 180.

<sup>126</sup> *nišār* is noted for son's wife in NAWATA 1981 and for brother's wife in FBB and Pa (neither notes an expression for daughter-in-law). In addition, it also means "bride" in SHG, "nephew's wife" in GCD and aunt's child's spouse, wife's brother's wife, brother's son's wife in Rz, grandson's wife, brother's son's wife, brother's grandson's wife, uncle's son's wife and wife's brother's wife in Pe.

<sup>127</sup> zāmāt / zāmās means "son-in-law" in most sources, only "brother-in-law" in FBB and Pa (but there is no expression for son-in-law in these sources) and both in Pe, SHG and Rz; the word may denote every man marrying into the family, thus also (Rz) aunt's child's spouse, husband's sister's husband, brother's daughter's husband or (Pe) cousin's husband, niece's husband and granddaughter's husband or at least (Pa) mother's sister's husband (most other combinations not being inquired by Pa).

husband's brother's wife	(h)amjirāt	Pe	SHG	Rz o	?128
wife's sister's husband	ham-zāmāt <sup>129</sup>	Pe	FBB, SHG		
	amzulp			Rz o	?130
co-wife	hapōg		FBB, SHG		?131
	hapōk			EAL	1
other sorts of relationsh	ips: <sup>132</sup>	•		•	
stepmother	mātō		FBB	EVM	(old)
	mātū		SHG	0	1
	māsū		SHG	EVM	1
	mātūn	DTB		0	Br.? <sup>133</sup>
stepfather	pitō		FBB	0	(old)
	pitū		SHG		1
	pis(s)ō		SHG	0	1
	pis(s)ū			EAL	1
	pitārk <sup>134</sup>			Rz	
stepsister	gwārō		FBB	0	(old)
stepbrother	brātō		FBB	0	(old)

<sup>128</sup> The etymology is not clear yet. One might assume ham° "together" or some connection with hanj (according to EAL "girl given in marriage by the guilty tribe as compensation for a person killed"), whereas SHG has hanj (from DAMES 1907) "graceful, pretty", but in both cases, the rest is not clear.

<sup>129</sup> ham-zāmāt is composed of zāmāt (see above) and ham "together, also" (cf. p. 94).

<sup>130</sup> It seems questionable whether this is a compound of ham + NP-Ar. zulf "lock of hair". Note that Rz discusses the Balochi dialect from Turkmenistan in which h is lost in all positions.

<sup>131</sup> For EBal. (h)awōx, cf. p. 276.

The derivation of hapōg (and a number of Ir. cognates) is not entirely clear; it can hardly go back to OIr. (Av.) hapaðnī- (pace Elfenbein 1990/II:66) as Psht. bən, NP āmūsnī and cognates do, but the two words may have influenced each other (MORGENSTIERNE 1932:47).

<sup>132</sup> For the  $-\bar{o}$  in the words below, cf. p. 201.

<sup>133</sup> *mātūn* cannot be genuine in EBal., maybe it has been borrowed from Br. *mātuna* (note that ROSSI 1979:105 has Br. *mātuna* among the words where the direction of borrowing is not clear).

<sup>134</sup> *pitārk* is one of the items for which MORGENSTIERNE (in this case 1932:37) assumed a borrowing of a Br. words from a "lost" Bal. word.

stepdaughter	nafusx	DTB			old? <sup>135</sup>
stepson	pēzāda(g)			Rz	136
	p <sup>h</sup> izādaġ	DTB		0	
stepchild	čuk(k)ō		FBB, SHG	0	(Ind.?)

<sup>135</sup> *napusk* in EAL is the SWBal. form which would correspond to EBal. *nafusx*, but it does not seem to be attested anywhere, neither is EAL *nafusk*. The only attested form seems to be *nafusx* which is cited in MORGENSTIERNE 1932:48 from DTB and his Sibi informant; the -*x* implies an earlier form \*nafusVk.

MORGENSTIERNE 1932:48 notes nafusx as "possibly genuine" and compares it with Wakhi  $nap\ddot{u}s$  "niece, nephew" (cf. Steblin-Kamenskij 1999:249), implying that the word goes back to some form of OIr. (Av.)  $nap\bar{a}t$ -/ $nafa\delta r$ - "grandchild". As a is not usually changed to u in genuine Bal. words even when next to a p (for labialisation in loanwords, cf. p. 286), one may assume that some reinterpretation of the word as belonging to pus(s)ag "son" has taken place. The OIr. preform would have to be \*napa\u03c4r- (cf. also p. 89).

<sup>136</sup> The word seems to represent a compound from pit, pis(s) and MP  $z\bar{a}dag$ , NP  $z\bar{a}da$ , thus "father's son" (DTB has "stepson, husband's son") with total assimilation of the consonant group, with  $\bar{e}$  in the WBal. variant representing the product of a compensatory lengthening of i (cf. the change  $ih > \bar{e}$  discussed in II 3.1.3.2). Note that the variant found in DTB must have been borrowed from a SWBal. dialect, otherwise one would expect \*°zāðaġ.

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#### 3. Colours

The terms for colours belong to that part of the vocabulary which highly depends on the material culture of the society in question. New terms of colours are liable to be introduced together with the corresponding technologies, e.g. the dying of cloth and the trade of the substances used for that purpose.

It is not surprising to find a considerable number of loanwords among the terms for colours. However, the high number of borrowed terms is striking nevertheless:  $\check{san}$ , a word for "black" which is only used for specific purposes and found in a small number of sources, is indeed the only word which is surely inherited. suhr "red" and  $b\bar{o}r$  "brown" might be genuine as well, but the whole rest are most probably loanwords, chiefly from NP, but Ind. loanwords also play a prominent role. Material from other languages does not seem to be used in this field.

item	Bal.	EBal.	SBal.	WBal.	status
black	syāh				NP
	šān	Mayer 1910			old
white	(i)spēt				NP
red	suhr <sup>137</sup>				= MP
	rōdgīn			BMC	old
	šāmīr			BMC o	?138
yellow	zard				NP <sup>139</sup>
green-blue <sup>140</sup>	sabz <sup>141</sup>				NP
	šīnz, šūnz		FBB, SHG		

<sup>137</sup> The variant  $s\bar{o}r$  found in EVM, FBB shows the rule discussed on p. 211f. In addition to  $s\bar{o}r$ , BMC and EAL have the hypercorrect form  $s\bar{o}hr$ .

<sup>138</sup> The word seems to be related to MPZ *karmīr*, Sogd. *krm'yr* (Nicholas Sims-Williams, personal communication), but the reason for the *š*- is not clear. For further discussion of MPZ *karmīr*, NP *qirmiz* (ultimately an Ind. loanword) etc., cf. MACIUSZAK 1996:29f.

<sup>139</sup> Cf. Geiger 1891:463.

<sup>140</sup> Both words noted here vary in semantics between "green", "blue" and sometimes also "grey".

<sup>141</sup> Note that the EBal. form sawz is also seen in other dialects: BMC sauz (cf. p. 277).

blue	nīl	ABG, GCD	SHG	BMC	NP
	nīlaģ <sup>142</sup>	DTB, GCD		0	
	gullī		FBB	0	Ind.? <sup>143</sup>
brown	nāsī		FBB, SHG	0	(Ur.) <sup>144</sup>
	bōr	DTB	SHG	BMC	$= NP^{145}$
grey	pūrī		FBB	0	?146
	kambar	DTB	SHG	BMC	Ind.? <sup>147</sup>
	surkind			BMC o	Ind.? <sup>148</sup>
	kīrg		SHG	BMC	?149
orange	nārinjī		FBB	0	NP <sup>150</sup>

<sup>142</sup> Further derivations also occur:  $n\bar{\imath}lb\bar{o}$  "blueish",  $n\bar{\imath}l\bar{\imath}$  "blue-grey" (both BMC and EAL).

<sup>143</sup> Maybe this word comes from Ur. gullī (name of a certain bird).

<sup>144</sup> *nāsī* is derived from *nās* "snuff (tobacco)", a borrowing from Ur. *nās* "snuff".

<sup>145</sup>  $b\bar{o}r$  is especially said of horses and might have been borrowed from NP  $b\bar{o}r$  "red, sort of horse" (GEIGER 1891:444) or genuine (Osset.  $b\bar{u}r$  / bor goes back to \*baur-, too, cf. HÜBSCHMANN 1887:89). For a discussion about a connection of the Ir. words for "brown" with OInd.  $bab^h r \hat{u}$ -"brown", to OP Baurakka- or to PIr. \*barua-, cf. MAYRHOFER 1960:146<sup>74</sup>, 1973:144, SIMS-WILLIAMS 1992:47. It is also possible that the word has been borrowed from Si.  $b\bar{o}r\bar{u}$  as DTB assumes. GCD has  $b^h \bar{u}r\bar{a}$  "brown" which is a loanword from Urdu.

<sup>146</sup> Maybe there is some connection with pur(r) (DTB  $p^hur$ ) "ashes", the etymology of which is likewise unclear.

<sup>147</sup> *kambar* means "brown-grey, spotted, striped" and is mostly used for animals. ELFENBEIN 1990/II:80 assumes borrowing from some Ind. language, citing TURNER 1966:139 who has OInd. *kambara-* "spotted", Si. *kamirō*.

<sup>148</sup> *surkind* means "red-grey" in BMC. *surkind* might represent *sarkind* (DTB), the name of a tree (most probably from Ur. *sarkandā* "reed, saccharum sara"), with the vowel adapted to *suhr* "red".

<sup>149</sup> According to BMC,  $k\bar{r}rg$  means "white-grey". Note that the definition given in SHG is  $rang-\bar{e}$  ("a colour") without further specification which might indicate that the word is not part of the active vocabulary of the author(s) of SHG. BMC might therefore be the only source where the word is used (EAL is not necessarily an independent source, cf. p. 24). Maybe there is some connection with Ur.  $kair\bar{a}$  "light blue, grey" or  $k^hair\bar{a}$  "brown, blueish grey", although this hypothesis is very vague.

<sup>150</sup> *nārinjī* "orange" has been borrowed from NP *nārinjī* "dto." and is derived from *nārinj* "orange (fruit)" (GEIGER 1891:456); for the wanderings of the word for "orange", cf. LOKOTSCH 1927:125.

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purple	wāngaṛī <sup>151</sup>	FBB	0	
pink	$gul\bar{a}b(\bar{\imath})$	FBB	BMC	NP <sup>152</sup>
golden	sunērī	FBB		Ur. <sup>153</sup>
	zarrī	FBB, SHG		(NP) <sup>154</sup>
silver	čandan			Ur. <sup>155</sup>

<sup>151</sup> This word is derived from  $w\bar{a}ngar$  "eggplant"; its origin is not clear.

<sup>152</sup> BMC gulāb, FBB gulābī "pink" is from NP gulāb "rose-water", gulābī "rose-colour".

<sup>153</sup> Cf. Ur. sunahrī.

<sup>154</sup> *zarrī* can mean "golden" or "silver". *zarrī* is a derivative of *zarr* "gold, money" which has been borrowed from NP into Balochi (cf. p. 133).

<sup>155</sup> *čandan* also means "shining" and is originally a designation for perfumes, especially sandal wood (from Ur. *čandan* "sandal tree").

The lexicon of Balochi verbs can be shown to be composed of essentially the same layers which are found for nouns and adjectives, i.e. a certain portion of genuine words and a considerable amount of borrowed material. The verbs which are presented in the following tables are in the majority those discussed in the preceding chapters, which means that the genuine words are overrepresented to a certain extent since they have been used to establish the Balochi sound laws. As in the other parts of the lexicon discussed above, the number of loanwords found in what one might consider the basic vocabulary is surprising.<sup>156</sup>

### 4.1 Balochi verbs which can be traced back to OIr.

The first category comprises those verbs which might be considered genuine since at least one of their stems shows features typical for Balochi, but not for Persian.

	present stem	past stem		
past stem and present stem going back to older formations:				
come	āy-	ătk etc.¹57		
stand	ōšt-	ōštāt <sup>158</sup>		
shoot	EBal. bušk-	buxt <sup>h</sup> -		
become	bay-	būt <sup>159</sup>		

<sup>156</sup> Verbs composed of a nominal part and a verb ("X kan-" etc.) are not discussed here. Secondary past stems in -it will mostly not be noted if there are other formations as well. For further information about the verbs listed in the following pages, cf. the references in V 2.

On genuine and borrowed verbs in the Bal. lexicon, cf. also KORN 2001.

<sup>157</sup> Note that  $\bar{a}y$ - is identical with the NP present stem  $\bar{a}y$ - "come". The past stems, however, are formed differently (NP  $\bar{a}mad$ ). The result of OIr. xt (and also of secondary \*kt) are discussed in II 2.2.1.1 and the subchapters of II 3.2. For the purposes of this chapter, the variant in SBal. -kt is chosen and "etc." added to indicate that there are other variants as well.

<sup>158</sup> For the variants ušt-, ust- (past stems uštāt, ustāt), cf. p. 124.

<sup>159</sup> The derivation of *bay*- is not entirely clear (cf. p. 78). *būt* is nearly identical with NP *būd* (for devoicing of final consonants in loanwords, cf. II 3.3.1.4). For variants of *būt*, cf. p. 197, 246.

cook	pač-	patk, pakkit
squeeze <sup>160</sup>	prinč-	pritk
break itr. tr.	pruš- prōš-	prušt prōšt <sup>161</sup>
heat	tāp-	tāpt
run	tač-	tatk
hit	jan-	<i>jat</i>
gather	čin-	čit
brand	+diž-	daxt
sew	dōč-	WBal. duht <sup>162</sup>
grow	rud-	rust <sup>163</sup>
sweep	rōp-	rupt <sup>164</sup>
pour	rēč-	EBal. rixt-165
spin	rēs-	rist, rēs(i)t
seize	zin-	zit <sup>166</sup>
shave	sāy-, sāh-	sāt
burn itr. tr.	suč- sōč-	sutk etc. sōtk etc. <sup>167</sup>

<sup>160</sup> The etymology of the verb is not entirely clear (cf. p. 138, 184), but it appears to go back to an older formation, and there are no signs for it being a loanword.

<sup>161</sup> These two verbs may go back to an older ablauting paradigm \*prōš- / prušta (cf. the parallel case of  $\check{s}\bar{o}d$ - /  $\check{s}ust$  below) which resulted in two verbs by adding one new present stem  $pru\check{s}$ - (vowel taken from the past stem) and one new past stem  $pr\bar{o}\check{s}$ - (analogical vowel from the present stem).

<sup>162</sup> The evidence for WBal. *duht* is somewhat questionable, cf. p. 248, 257. The other dialects have  $d\bar{o}tk$  etc. with the vowel of from the present stem.

<sup>163</sup> The past stem is identical with the NP one, but the present stems are formed differently (NP  $r\bar{o}y$ -, showing Pers. \*-d- > y).

<sup>164</sup> The past stem again corresponds to the NP cognate ruft.

<sup>165</sup> The other dialects have *rētk* etc. into which the vowel of the present stem has analogically been introduced. For a variant of the present stem, cf. p. 199.

<sup>166</sup> For additional past stems, cf. p. 96.

<sup>167</sup> suč- and sōč- show a parallel redistribution of ablaut as pruš-, prōš- above, cf. also p. 87.

break	sind-	sist
swell	sīy-	$s\bar{t}t^{168}$
wash	šōd-	<i>šust</i> <sup>169</sup>
sell	šawašk-	EBal. <i>šawaxt-</i> <sup>170</sup>
fall	kap- <sup>171</sup>	kapt
do	kan-	$ku(r)t^{172}$
collect	<sup>‡</sup> gičin-	gičit <sup>173</sup>
see	gind-	$d\bar{\imath}t,\ d\bar{\imath}st^{174}$
swing	gēj-	EBal. gixt- <sup>175</sup>
die	mir-	murt
suck	mēč-, mič-	mēt, mitk <sup>176</sup>
urinate	mēz-	EBal. mišt- <sup>177</sup>
sit down	nind-	ništ <sup>178</sup>
read	wān-	wānt <sup>179</sup>

EAL has an additional verb  $\check{s}ud$ - /  $\check{s}udit$  "get, be washed"; otherwise there is only EBal.  $\check{s}u\delta$ - /  $\check{s}ust^h$ - (GEB from DAMES 1881, it does not figure in DTB) from where Elfenbein may have learnt it, its existence thus somewhat appears doubtful, although certainly possible.

<sup>168</sup> It is not clear to what sort of stem the Bal. verb goes back; at any rate, it cannot be a parallel formation to OInd. śváya- or Av. sauua- (cf. p. 91).

<sup>169</sup> For the past stem šušt, cf. p. 180.

<sup>170</sup> A secondary past stem šawašt also exists.

<sup>171</sup> For an additional variant, cf. p. 460.

<sup>172</sup> For the present stem, cf. p. 133, 143, for the past stem, cf. p. 146.

<sup>173</sup> For the rather problematic attestation, cf. p. 85.

<sup>174</sup> dīt and variants may have been influenced, if not borrowed from, NP dīd (cf. p. 188).

<sup>175</sup> The other dialects have  $g\bar{e}tk$  etc. with the vowel from the present stem; for details, cf. p. 98.

<sup>176</sup> The forms might reflect an older paradigm  $m\bar{e}\dot{c}$ - / mitk, with the other formations being added analogically.

<sup>177</sup> The secondary past stems mēst and mēzit also occur; for the EBal. present stem miž-, cf. p. 88.

<sup>178</sup> For the present stem, cf. p. 127; for the past stem, cf. p. 96. Iranian Balochi has nist.

<sup>179</sup> The past stem is based on the present stem which is an innovation vs. MPM  $xw\bar{a}n$ - / xwand (thus BOYCE 1977:99). As the same process has happened in the prehistory of NP ( $x^w\bar{a}n$ - /  $x^w\bar{a}nd$ ), the innovation process need not be an exclusively Balochi one. Parthian has xun- /  $xun\bar{a}d$ , cf. p. 122).

go to sleep	waps-, wasp-	wapt				
eat	war-	wārt, wart <sup>180</sup>				
present stem old	present stem old, past stem with analogical features: <sup>181</sup>					
spin	brēs-	brēst				
open	bōj-	<i>bōtk</i> etc.				
suffocate extinguish	tus- tōs-	tust tōst <sup>182</sup>				
chew	j̄ā(y/h)-	EBal. <i>jā</i> ϑ- <sup>183</sup>				
milk	dōš-	dušt <sup>184</sup>				
know	zān-	$z\bar{a}nt^{185}$				
take	gir-	gipt <sup>186</sup>				
sift	gēč-	gētk <sup>187</sup>				
rub	muš-	mušt <sup>188</sup>				
listen	$nig\bar{o}\check{s}$ - $nig\bar{o}\check{s}t^{189}$					
past stem old, present stem with possible analogical features:						
take	zūr-	zurt <sup>190</sup>				

<sup>180</sup> The  $\bar{a}$  in the past stem is due to a specific lengthening process (cf. p. 189), wart (only in EVM) might be a secondarily regularised form.

<sup>181</sup> In several of these cases, the vowel of the present stem has been generalised to the past stem.

<sup>182</sup> The past stems must be secondary since the -s- goes back to \*sk (EAWia I:652, cf. p. 87). As the suffix \*-ske- is usually added to zero-grade roots, tōs- is likely to have been built to the model of verbs with zero-grade itr. and full-grade tr. form (e.g. suč-, sōč-).

<sup>183</sup> The other dialects have secondary jāyit, jāhit.

<sup>184</sup> There is some suffix involved in the formation of the present stem to give Bal. -š- (cf. p. 129), which has been introduced also into the past stem.

<sup>185</sup> The past stem seems to be an exclusively Bal. formation (Parthian has zānād, MP/NP has dānist).

<sup>186</sup> For variants of the past stem, cf. p. 144.

<sup>187</sup> The past stem (with the vowel from the present stem) is only attested in its SBal. form.

<sup>188</sup> Since the past stem is identical with the NP one, it could have been borrowed from there. In that case, the present stem could be secondary, but might also be genuine (cf. p. 92).

<sup>189</sup> The vowel of the present stem has obviously been introduced into the past stem vs. the Av. past stem  $gu\bar{s}ta$ - (Parthian has the secondary formation  $ni\gamma\bar{o}\bar{s}\bar{a}d$ , MP/NP correspondingly  $niy\bar{o}\bar{s}\bar{i}d$ ).

<sup>190</sup>  $z\bar{u}r$ - (and  $z\bar{v}r$ -, cf. p. 197) shows the application of an analogical rule that present stems should be "stronger" than past stems. For zurt, cf. p. 146. Secondary past stems include  $z\bar{u}rt$ ,  $z\bar{v}rt$ .

forget	šamōš-, šamuš-	šamōšt, šamušt <sup>191</sup>
dry (itr.)	huš-	hušt
past stem secon	dary formation or not	known:
fear	turs-	tursit <sup>192</sup>
move	j̃uz(z)-	juz(z)it
colour	raj-	rajit
defecate	rīy- <sup>193</sup>	
send	šast-	šastit, EBal. šastāϑ-¹94
bite	gas-	gast, EBal. gasiϑ-
rain	gwār-	gwārt, gwart
weave	gwap- EBal. guf-	gwapt, <sup>195</sup> EBal. guft
pass by	gwaz- guz-	gwast
say	gwaš- guš-	gušt <sup>196</sup>

<sup>191</sup> The forms with  $\bar{o}$  are secondary (cf. p. 117), probably analogically to verbs of the type  $\bar{sod}$ - /  $\bar{sust}$ , thus  $\bar{samu\bar{s}}$ - /  $\bar{samu\bar{s}}$ + /  $\bar{samu\bar{s}}$ + /  $\bar{samo\bar{s}}$ - /  $\bar{samo\bar{s}}$ - /  $\bar{samo\bar{s}}$ - /  $\bar{samo\bar{s}}$ - /

<sup>192</sup> It is possible that *turs*- is a denominative of the noun *turs* "fear". However, it might also be regularly derived from \*trs-ske- and thus represent a parallel formation to that of Prth. *tirs- / tirsād*, Av. *tərəsa-* (cf. p. 146). The past stem is secondary in any case.

<sup>193</sup> The word is only found in LEECH 1838, DAMES 1881 and SHG (a past stem is not noted), which does not speak against its existence, however, since words from this semantic sphere tend to be omitted in glossaries and dictionaries. The NP cognate is  $r\bar{\imath}n$ - /  $r\bar{\imath}d$ .

<sup>194</sup> Variants with assimilation also occur (*šašt- / šaštit*, EBal. *šaštāϑ-*, cf. p. 180). The past stem morpheme -*āt* is only found in a small number of Bal. verbs; here, it reflects \*fra-stā-ta- (cf. p. 116f.).

<sup>195</sup> The verbs with gwa-, gu- in the present stem have imported their word-initial consonant(s) into the past stems since a paradigm present stem \* $\frac{1}{2}$ a- > gwa- > gu- / past stem \*u- > u- would be too abnormal to be preserved. Cf. also p. 99, 218f.

<sup>196</sup> If the derivation of gwaš- / guš- as discussed in 2.2.2.3 is correct, the past stem must be built from the present stem which involves a suffix.

## 4.2 Bal. verbs which were formed within Bal. from genuine words

There is a small group of verbs which seem to be an exclusively Balochi formation from words which are probably inherited.

	present stem	past stem	derived from
hear	uškun- etc.	uškut etc.	*uš- "ear" + ? <sup>197</sup>
hunger	EBal. šuδ-	šust <sup>h</sup> -	<i>šud</i> "hunger" <sup>198</sup>
plough	šōm-		<i>šōm</i> "ploughing" <sup>199</sup>
thunder	grand-	grandit, EBal. garandaϑ-	grand "thunder" <sup>200</sup>
call	<sup>‡</sup> gwānj̆- <sup>201</sup>	3.sg. <i>gwānjat</i> ; secondary stem <sup>‡</sup> <i>gwānjit</i>	gwānk "cry" + jan- "hit"
harrow	marz-	marzit	marz "clodcrusher"

<sup>197</sup> For discussion of the etymology, cf. p. 147, for variants, cf. p. 154, 196, 236, 252.

<sup>198</sup> Although the past stem looks like an old formation, the verb is not likely to be old since there are no corresponding formations in Avestan or other Ir. languages (note that comparable verbal forms from an OInd. root √kṣud are considered secondary by EWAia I:440 as well). The existence of adjectives like šudag, šudīg etc. "hungry" might have supported the formation of the EBal. infinitive šuδag. The past stem (GCD has an assimilated form šuštʰa) might be analogical to šuδ- / šustʰ- or šōd- / šust "wash" (cf. p. 314). It is thus probable that EBal. šuδ- (only in DTB, GCD) is a denominative of šud "hunger" (for which cf. p. 79, 92).

<sup>199</sup> Cf. also p. 115f. The verb is only found in SHG, so the past stem is not known.

<sup>200</sup> DTB has garandaϑ- (for -aϑ-, cf. p. 186), GCD has garandϑ- (cf. p. 236). grand is not likely to have been borrowed from Ur. garaˇj "thunder" (pace GILBERTSON 1925:683), but may be connected with Sogd. γr'yntn etc. (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1976:60).

<sup>201</sup> For a discussion of the present stem, cf. p. 137.

## 4.3 Balochi verbs which might be borrowed from NP or genuine

Just as in the case of nouns, there is a considerable portion of the verbal part of the Bal. lexicon where the sound laws of Balochi would produce the same result as those of NP, so that it cannot be decided whether or not the words in question have been borrowed.

	present stem	past stem	NP		
past stem formation possibly old:					
carry	bar-	burt <sup>202</sup>	bar- / burd		
bind	band-	bast	band- / bast		
flee	jih-	j̃ist <sup>203</sup>	jah- / jast		
give birth	$z\bar{a}(y/h)$ -	zāt, zāhit	zāy- / zād		
pierce	sumb- EBal. sub-	supt, sumbit <sup>204</sup>	sunb- / suft, sunbīd		
pull	kaš(š)-	kašt, kaš(š)it	kaš- / kašīd		
kill	kuš-	kušt	kuš- / kušt		
have sex	$g\bar{a}(y)$ -	gāt	$g\bar{a}y$ - / $g\bar{a}(\bar{\imath})d$		
secondary p	secondary past stem:				
forgive	bašk-	baškāt <sup>205</sup>	baxš- / baxšīd		
ask	purs-	pursit	purs- / pursīd		

<sup>202</sup> As devoicing of word-final consonants is a common phenomenon in loanwords (cf. II 3.3.1.4), past stems which differ from the corresponding NP ones only in that they end in -t where the NP ones have -d are also possible loanwords. In the case of bar-, however, a borrowing is made less probable by the existence of irregular forms of the 3sg.pres. (cf. p. 147).

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<sup>203</sup> The difference in vocalism is no obstacle to the possibility of the word being a loanword since *a* may change to *i* next to a palatal consonant (cf. II 3.1.2.3.1). Cf. also p. 94.

<sup>204</sup> A present stem *sumb*- is apparently only found in Mockler 1877 and EAL (the latter probably informed by the former). Dames 1881 and DTB have *sumbag* "a stitch in the side". DTB and GCD have a past stem  $sub\vartheta a$  (reflecting a past stem \*subV\\vartheta\)-, cf. p. 236) for the present stem sub-, which is likely to have been modelled on the past stem.

The verb may be a denominative formation from *sumb* "hole"; *sumb* may have been borrowed from NP (thus GEIGER 1891:433), but with regard to Sogd. *swmb*- "pierce", it may be genuine as well.

<sup>205</sup> For the variants bakš-, baxš- which are loanwords (cf. p. 177), cf. p. 320.

graze turn	čar- čar(r)-	$\check{c}ar(i)t$ $\check{c}ar(r)it^{206}$	čar- / čarīd "graze"	
kiss	čuš(š)-, čūš(š)-	čūšit <sup>207</sup>	čōš- / čōšīd	
tear	din-, dir(r)-	dirt, dirrit <sup>208</sup>	darr- / darrīd	
arrive	ras-	rasit <sup>209</sup>	ras- / rasīd	
laugh	kand-	kandit <sup>210</sup>	xand- / xandīd	
groan	nār-	nārit	nāl- / nālīd	
Bal. verb fr	Bal. verb from a possible NP loanword:			
hit	čōp-	čupt, EBal. čōfiϑ-²¹¹	NP $\check{co}b$ "wood", Bal. $\check{co}p$ "stick" <sup>212</sup>	

#### 4.4 Balochi verbs which have been borrowed from Persian

There is a group of verbs which must have been borrowed from some stage of Persian since they show the result of sound changes which otherwise do not operate in Balochi.

<sup>206</sup> The gemination of the r in  $\check{c}ar(r)$ - "turn" suggests that a borrowing is involved (cf. II 3.3.1.5). However, the NP as well as the Ur. and Si. verbs  $\check{c}ar$ - mean "graze", cf. also p. 84.

<sup>207</sup> In the case of  $\check{c}\bar{u}\check{s}\check{s}$ -, the gemination of the  $\check{s}$  need not imply a borrowing since  $\check{c}\bar{u}\check{s}\check{s}$ - is only found in SHG which has regular doubling of consonants after  $\bar{u}$  (cf. p. 242), the other sources have  $\check{c}\bar{u}\check{s}$ -, for  $\check{c}u\check{s}\check{s}$ - (also only in SHG), cf. p. 209.

<sup>208</sup> For a possible explanation of the different forms (involving a contamination of a genuine and a borrowed form), cf. p. 145.

<sup>209</sup> ras- seems to occur otherwise only in Persian (OP rasa-, inchoative stem from  $\sqrt{a}$ r (BARTHOLOMAE 1893:264 etc.), so the Bal. word is probably a NP loanword. Wakhi  $ra\ddot{c}$ - "leave" etc. adduced by GEIGER 1890:143 are to be connected with Bal.  $r\bar{e}\ddot{c}$ - "pour" (STEBLIN-KAMENSKIJ 1999:300f.).

<sup>210</sup> *x* in loanwords from NP is usually replaced by *h*, the substitution by *k* is mainly seen in SBal. dialects (cf. p. 65f.). As *kand- / kandit* is attested in all dialects, it seems likely that it is inherited rather than borrowed. The possibility of a borrowing cannot be ruled out, however. For the variant *hand- / handit*, cf. p. 320.

<sup>211</sup> *čupt* is noted by YŪSEFIYĀN 1992:104, SWBal. *čōpit* is only found in EAL. The EBal. form *čōfið*-is found in DTB and GCD. The present stem is found in the SWBal. sources SHG, MOCKLER 1877 and one 19th century manuscript as well. If *čōp*- is a denominative verb, *čupt* shows a secondary ablaut.

<sup>212</sup> *čōp* seems to be a hapax (only in Cod. Or. 2921, cf. p. 33). Its etymology is not clear. It cannot be connected to OInd. *kṣupa-* "bush" as GEIGER 1890:118 assumes (HÜBSCHMANN 1890:557) since OInd. *kṣ-* corresponds to Bal., NP *š-* (cf. p. 92, 113). Cognates of OInd. *kṣupa-* might include Wakhi *šəpk* (STEBLIN-KAMENSKIJ 1999:337).

	present stem	past stem	NP	
present stem could also be genuine:				
hold, have	dār-	dāšt	dār- / dāšt	
past stem cou	uld also be genuin	e:		
give	day- <sup>213</sup>	dāt	dah-, dih- / dād	
go	raw-, ra(y)-	šut	raw- / šud	
NP features i	n present and pas	t stem:		
bring	ār-	ārt etc.	$\bar{a}(wa)r$ - / $\bar{a}ward^{214}$	
try	āzmāy- <sup>215</sup>		āzmāy- / āzmūd	
release	il(l)-	išt	hil- / hišt, hilīd	
sow	kiš-	kišt <sup>216</sup>	kiš- / kišt	
write	nibīs-	nibišt	MP nibēs- / nibišt	
past stem mi	ght have been form	med secondarily	in Bal.:	
cut	bur(r)-	bur(r)it	burr- / burrīd	
forgive	bakš-	bakšit	baxš- / baxšīd	
	baxš-	baxšit		
fear	tars-	tarsit	tars- / tarsīd	
steal	duz(z)-	$duz(z)it^{217}$	duzd- / duzdīd	
weep	grē(w)-	$gr\bar{e}t^{218}$	girī- / girīst	
laugh	hand-	handit	xand- / xandīd	

<sup>213</sup> The present stem day- is not the one found in NP, but the one which one would expect to find in NP. The variant  $d\bar{e}y$ - found in other dialects might have been borrowed from Urdu (cf. p. 270).

<sup>214</sup> Cf. p. 103.

<sup>215</sup> A past stem is not attested. In fact,  $\bar{a}zm\bar{a}y$ - is only found in MARSTON 1877, whereas the causative  $\bar{a}zm\bar{a}\bar{e}n$ - which is formed from it is found in the majority of sources (cf. p. 186).

<sup>216</sup> It is not impossible that *kiš- / kišt* might be genuine in Balochi, but it seems more probable that it has been borrowed from NP (cf. p. 144, 148).

<sup>217</sup> This verb might also be a denominative formation from the Pers. loanword duz(z) "thief" (for whi ch cf. p. 88, 125). However, since NP has the exactly parallel verbal formation, the verb may have been borrowed into Balochi along with the noun.

<sup>218</sup> For further discussion, cf. p. 162, 201, 205.

# 4.5 Balochi verbs which might be genuine or borrowed from Ind. languages

Similarly to the verbs discussed above, there are also some verbs which might be derived regularly from Old Iranian, but may have been borrowed from Ind. languages as well.

	Bal. verb	Ind.
become ripe	pakk- / pakkit <sup>219</sup>	$pak(k)\bar{a}$ "ripe, ready"
turn	tar(r)- / tar(r)it	Ur. tar-nā
swim	EBal. tar- / taraϑ-²²²0	Si. taraņu
live	EBal. <i>jī</i> - <sup>221</sup>	Ur. <i>jī-nā</i>
hear	EBal. sun- / sunið-	Ur. <i>sun-nā</i> <sup>222</sup>
chew	EBal. $k^h \bar{a} \delta$ - / $k^h \bar{a} \delta i \vartheta$ - <sup>223</sup>	Lhd. k <sup>h</sup> ād <sup>h</sup> "food"
dig	kōč-, kỗč-	Ur. <i>kōč-nā</i> <sup>224</sup>

## 4.6 Balochi verbs which are borrowed from languages other than Persian

For the following verbs no Iranian etymology is in sight, but a convenient verb from a neighbouring language from where it may have been borrowed:<sup>225</sup>

<sup>219</sup> pak(k)- may be a denominative from possibly inherited pak(k)ag or from borrowed  $pak(k)\bar{a}$  (both "ripe"), cf. p. 112.

<sup>220</sup> *tar-* "swim" is only found in DTB, GCD and EAL. The relationship of *tar-*, *tarr-* recalls that of *čar*, *čarr-* (cf. p. 150, 319). It is thus possible that an inherited *tar-* "turn" was changed to *tarr-* under the influence of borrowed *tar-* "swim". For EBal. past stems in -*a*ϑ- which have probably been shortened from SWBal. -*āt*, cf. p. 186.

<sup>221</sup> The existence is doubtful (only in MAYER 1910 with no past stem given, cf. p. 103).

<sup>222</sup> Cf. p. 147.

<sup>223</sup> It is possible that the Bal. noun  $k\bar{a}d$  "bite" was borrowed from Sindhi and that the EBal. verb is a denominative formation from  $k\bar{a}d$ . An Ir. etymology is also available, however (cf. p. 82f.).

<sup>224</sup> Cf. p. 216.

<sup>225</sup> Note that the EBal. verbs in this group do not show the sound changes typical for Eastern Balochi, e.g. DTB, GCD have *čik-* "pull" which proves that the words cannot be genuine to the EBal. dialect(s).

	verb	from
sink	buḍ(ḍ)- / buḍ(ḍ)it, EBal. buḍaϑ-	Si. <u>budaņu</u>
arrive	puj(j)-/ puj(j)it	Si. pujaņu, Lhd. pujjaņ
weigh	tōr-, EBal. ṭōl- / ṭōlaϑ-	Si. tōraṇu, Ur. tōl-nā
pull	čik(k)- / čik(k)it	Si. č <sup>h</sup> ikaņu
go	čal- / čalit	Ur. čal-nā
learn	$sik(k)$ - $/ sik(k)it^{226}$	Si. sik <sup>h</sup> aṇu
think	sōč- / sōčit	Ur. sōč-nā
crush	kut(t)- / $kut(t)$ it	Ur. kuṭ-nā
get lost	gisir-	Si. visiraņu
write	$lik(k)$ - $/ lik(k)it^{227}$	Si. lik <sup>h</sup> aṇu, Ur. lik <sup>h</sup> -nā
want	lōṭ-/lōṭit	Ur. <i>lōṭ-nā</i> "to long for"
lie down	lēṭ-/lēṭit	Si. lēṭaṇu, Ur. lēṭ-nā
meet	mil(l)- / mil(l)it	Ur. mil-nā "to join"
verbs made from borrowed nouns:		
change	badl- / badlit	badal "exchange" (NP-Ar.)
turn	čakarr- / čakarrit	Si. čakaru "diziness"

# 4.7 Unclear cases

Some verbs remain the origin of which is not clear yet, e.g.:

	verb	cf.
sleep	EBal. aks-/akasth-	p. 178
hurry	rumb- / rumbit	rumb "run", cf. p. 95
swell with rage	gažž-, ġažž- / ġažžit	p. 273

<sup>226</sup> GCD has the past stem  $sik^h\vartheta$ - (sic).

<sup>227</sup> GCD has the noteworthy past stem  $lik^h \bar{e}\vartheta$ -.

## IV. Conclusion

In the preceding chapters, an attempt has been made to give a picture of the Balochi language as the product of its specific history, reflecting a variety of factors and influences: first, the North Western Iranian heritage; second, the intense contact with neighbouring languages, among which Persian has occupied a place of pre-eminent importance; and third, the dialectal diversity, echoing, among other things, the precarious ecological environment and the differing occupation of the speakers as shepherding nomads or settled farmers. The preceding pages attempt to show how these factors interact and are mirrored in the Balochi lexicon.

In conclusion, the question arises of how the position of Balochi among North Western Iranian languages of past and present times may be described in the light of the issues raised.

At first sight, it seems that Balochi occupies a position apart from all other Western Iranian languages since the Old Iranian stops and affricates appear as such in the Southern and Western dialects and presumably in Common Balochi, while they undergo modifications in the closely related languages Parthian and Persian.<sup>1</sup>

OIr. C /V_V	Balochi (S, W)	Parthian (classical)	Middle Persian (classical)	
b, d, g	b, d, g	β, δ, γ	w, y, y	
p, t, k	p, t, k	b, d, g	b, d, g	
č	č			
j ž	j ž	ž	z	
1. Stops and affricates in Western Ir. languages				

This well-known fact has appeared striking to all researchers who have dealt with the subject.

In the tables to follow, "classical" Parthian / Middle Persian denotes the stage reflected in the orthography of the Manichaean texts from Turfan. As for Parthian, this stage is termed "Mittelmittelparthisch" by SUNDERMANN 1989a:123.

It seems to have generally been assumed that the OIr. stops and affricates have been preserved in Balochi up to the present day. The only change would be that of the OIr. fricatives to Bal. stops (bold type marks elements which are changed in Balochi):

Old Iranian	*Middle Balochi <sup>2</sup>	New Balochi	classical Parthian	
b, d, g /V_	b, d, g		β, δ, γ	
p, t, k /V_		ı.	b, d, g	
$f, \vartheta, x$	p, t, k  č,  j, ž		f, h, x	
č /V_, j, ž			ž	
OIr. > voiceless fricatives > [-voiced, +cont] >	*Middle, New Baloc stops [-voiced, -cont]	hi		
2. Model A (preservation of OIr. stops and affricates)				

The remaining Western as well as Eastern Middle Iranian languages show a lenition of postvocalic stops. As the preceding chapters have shown, there is ample evidence for continuing and intense contact between Balochi and neighbouring languages. So one is bound to wonder whether it is a likely hypothesis that Middle Balochi did not take part in a development shared by all neighbouring Iranian languages.

If one assumes that Balochi underwent the same lenition that operated elsewhere,<sup>3</sup> the lenition products must have later been reversed to their original state. This reversal might have been the same process that changed the Old Iranian fricatives of whatever source to stops, thereby coalescing with the product of OIr. stops (elements which have changed in the same way in Balochi and Parthian are underlined in the following tables):

The term "Middle Balochi" will be used to denote the (reconstructed) Middle Iranian stage of Balochi.

<sup>3</sup> Note that the lenition of postvocalic *b*, *d*, *g* is termed "common throughout Iranian" by SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996:650.

Old Iranian	*Middle Balochi	New Balochi	classical Parthian			
b, d, g /V_	β, δ, γ	b, d, g	β, δ, γ			
p, t, k /V_	<u>b, d, g</u>	n t k	<u>b, d, g</u>			
$f, \vartheta, x$	f, \(\ddot\), x	p, t, k	f, h, x			
č /V_,	č,	č,	ž			
j, ž	j, ž	j, ž	~			
OIr. >	*Middle Balochi > voiced stops > [+voiced, -cont] > fricatives > [+cont] >	New Balochi voiceless [-voiced, -cont] stops [-cont]	I			
3. Model B (le	3. Model B (lenition and reversal of stops from a classical MIr. stage)					

This model has the advantage of bringing Middle Balochi considerably nearer to Parthian, but the disadvantage of needing one more change than model A to effect the New Balochi state of affairs, the two changes not being necessarily logically related. It is thus not clear which model is the better one.

A closer look at the MIr. data, specifically the development of the stops and affricates in Parthian, appears necessary. The following table shows the Prth. results of OIr. stops, fricatives and affricates in the stage of Parthian represented by the Nisa ostraca and certain names ("Prth. 1" here, cf. SUNDERMANN 1989a:123), in the stage reflected in the Prth. loanwords in Armenian ("Prth. 2")<sup>4</sup> and in a postclassical stage ("Prth. 4").<sup>5</sup> The resulting picture is as follows (changes in Parthian in bold type):

This stage is called "Frühmittelparthisch" by SUNDERMANN 1989a:123f. The older Prth. loanwords in Armenian show the OIr. voiceless stops and č in unchanged form (e.g. *spitak* "white", r̄očik "daily bread"), but fricatives for OIr. voiced stops: Ir. β is rendered by Arm. v (e.g. žanvar "sedan chair" < \*jani-bara- "carrying women"), and Ir. δ by Arm. r.

<sup>5</sup> This stage is called "Spätmittelparthisch" by SUNDERMANN 1989a:122ff.

	Prth. 1			
	1 1011. 1	Prth. 2	Prth. 3 (class.)	Prth. 4
b, d, g	b, d, g	β, δ, γ	β, δ, γ	0 \$
	p, t, k	p, t, k	b, d, g	β, δ, γ
p, t, k	f, x	f, x	<i>f</i> , <i>x</i>	f, x
	θ	L	l <sub>o</sub>	h
h	h	n	n	n
č	č	č		
Ĭ	$\widecheck{J}^6$	<b>¥</b>	ž	ž
ž	ž	Ζ,		
	h č j	$p, t, k$ $f, x$ $\vartheta$ $h$ $\check{c}$ $\check{c}$ $\check{j}$ $\check{j}^6$ $\check{z}$ $\check{z}$	$ \begin{array}{c cccc} p, t, k & f, x & f, x \\ \hline  & \vartheta & h \\ \hline  & h & h \\ \hline  & \check{c} & \check{c} & \check{c} \\ \hline  & \check{j} & \check{j}^6 & \check{z} \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{c cccc} p, t, k & f, x & f, x \\ \hline  & \vartheta & h & h \\ \hline  & h & h & \lambda & \lambda$

The Prth. stage that Balochi seems to share most characteristics with is "Parthian 1". However, the assumption that Balochi is derived from the Middle Ir. stage represented by Parthian 1 would amount to a model of the same structure as model A discussed above; it does not offer any advantages in comparison with the assumption that Balochi is derived directly from the OIr. stage.

An alternative possibility would be to assume that Middle Balochi corresponds to the MIr. stage represented by Parthian 2:

I have not seen evidence that OIr. j is preserved in "Parthian 1", but assume it here for systematic reasons.

Old Iranian	*Middle Balochi	New Balochi	Parthian 2	
b, d, g /V_	β, δ, γ	b, d, g	β, δ, γ	
p, t, k/V_	p, t, k	n + 1	p, t, k	
$f, \vartheta, x$	f, \(\partial\), x	p, t, k	f, h, x	
č /V_,	č,	č,	č,	
j, ž	j, ž	j, ž	ž	
OIr. >	*Middle Balochi >	New Balochi		
	fricatives >	stops		
	[+cont] >	[-cont]		
5. Model C (lenition and reversal of stops from an older MIr. stage)				

This model combines the advantages of models A and B: it brings Middle Balochi nearer to a known stage of Parthian (like model B); it needs only one change to derive Balochi from Middle Iranian and is thus as simple as model A.

It may be noted in passing that the change assumed here (MBal. fricatives > CBal. stops) would also produce the CBal. result from the Sogdian state of affairs as far as the stops and fricatives are concerned:

Old Iranian	*Middle Balochi (model C)	New Balochi	Parthian 2	Sogdian
# b, d, g - b, d, g	# b, d, g - β, δ, γ	b, d, g	# b, d, g - β, δ, γ	β, δ, γ
# p, t, k - p, t, k	p, t, k	p, t, k	p, t, k	p, t, k
$f, \vartheta, x$	f, <b>ð</b> , x		f, <b>h</b> , x	f, <b>v</b> , x
# č, j, ž - č, j, ž	č, j, ž	č, j, ž	# č, ž – ž	č, ž

The only difference between Middle Balochi as assumed here and Parthian is that Balochi preserves two OIr. phonemic oppositions which got lost in Parthian, viz. OIr.

6. Stops, fricatives and affricates in Balochi, Parthian and Sogdian

 $\vartheta$  vs. h and  $\check{j}$  vs.  $\check{z}$ . Had Balochi experienced the change of OIr.  $\vartheta > h$  seen in Parthian 2 and following stages, it would have been impossible to reverse only those cases of h to t which go back to OIr.  $\vartheta$  without affecting h from OIr. h (cf. II 2.1.2.1). Similarly, it seems that OIr.  $\check{j}$  and  $\check{z}$  fall together in Parthian 2 while Balochi preserves the three phonemes  $(r\bar{o}\check{c}$  "day",  $b\bar{o}\check{j}$ - "save",  $d\bar{u}\check{z}ah$  "hell", cf. II 2.1.2.2, 2.1.2.4). It follows that Balochi cannot go back to Parthian 2, 3 or 4. These differences (MBal.  $\vartheta$  vs. Prth. 2 h, MBal.  $\check{j}$  vs. Prth. 2  $\check{z}$ ) would thus remain; they might be considered quite minor dialectal differences between two neighbouring MIr. dialects.

While the product of PIr.  $*_{\mathfrak{r}}$  is ur in labial contexts and ir otherwise in Parthian, Balochi shows ir in palatal contexts and ur otherwise (cf. II 2.3.2.1). Particularly telling examples are pairs like Prth. <tyrs- / tyrs'd> tirs- / tirs\bar{a}d "fear", <tryf\bar{s}> trif\bar{s}\$ "sour" and <kyrd> kird "done" vs. Bal. turs- / tursit,  $trup\bar{s}$  and kurt, respectively. Even if <y> in e.g. Prth. <tyrs->, <kyrd> stands for e as has been assumed for MP, forms like kerd are unlikely to have been the protoforms of the Balochi words since there is no labial context and no analogy in sight which might have motivated a change to turs-, kurt.

It would follow that Balochi goes back to a Middle Ir. dialect which corresponds to Parthian in a number of respects, but differs from it in others. The existence of more than one NWIr. idiom in Middle Iranian times, a priori highly likely, is not only presupposed by doublets like Arm. *seaw*, *šava*° "black", both commonly assumed to have been borrowed from "Parthian", but also by evidence from other contemporary Ir. languages. The Western Ir. languages (with only two of them attested in manuscripts, inscriptions etc.) may have formed a continuum of dialects at Middle Ir. times.<sup>8</sup>

Note that the preservation of OIr.  $\vartheta$  has been considered a typically Eastern Ir. feature; some EIr. languages show a change of  $\vartheta > t$  (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996:650).

<sup>8</sup> It seems indeed that all Middle Ir. languages (including the Eastern ones) formed a continuum of dialects (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996:650).

The origin of Balochi as a WIr. language whose ancestor is similar to, but not identical with Parthian can thus be established. Other findings complicate the picture at once, however. While a number of Bal. sound changes correspond to those of neighbouring NWIr. languages as one might expect (e.g. OIr. postvocalic  $\check{c}$ ,  $\check{j}$ ,  $\check{z}$  preserved in Balochi vs. Pers. z, e.g.  $r\bar{o}z$ ,  $b\bar{o}z$ -,  $d\bar{o}zax$ ; PIE \* $\acute{g}$  > Bal. z vs. Persian d), other Balochi sound laws are the Persian, not the NWIr. ones (e.g. PIE \*tr > Bal. s(s), cf. II 2.1.2.4). A similar statement may be made for Kurdish, whereas Zazaki shows NWIr. features in all these cases. Balochi and Kurdish thus occupy a position between the NWIr. and the SWIr. languages and might in this respect be called "Transitional Western Iranian languages".

If one looks at the NWIr. and SWIr. features of contemporary Western Iranian languages from a purely synchronic point of view (cf. PAUL 1998), one might get the incorrect impression that the languages hitherto called North Western Iranian started out as NWIr. idioms and gradually came more and more under the influence of Persian, with Balochi and Kurdish occupying the positions next to New Persian in terms of "South-Westernness" or "lack of North-Westernness". However, increasing absorption into the Persian sphere does not adequately describe the data as the SWIr. characteristics of Balochi and Kurdish date from widely differing periods (cf. KORN 2003:53ff.), beginning with the treatment of PIE \*tr where already Old Persian shows  $\varphi$  (> MP s) vs. Av.  $\vartheta r$ .

The NWIr. characteristics of Middle and New Iranian languages are predominantly of the type that Parthian etc. preserves certain OIr. sounds while Persian shows some sort of innovation (e.g. OIr. rz, rd retained in NWIr. languages vs. NP l). The only innovations seen in Parthian (all of them also found in Zazaki) are the development of OIr.  $\vartheta u > f$  (vs. MP h), OIr. du - b - (vs. MP d - and OIr. <math>hu - wx - (vs. MP d - available) if the latter can be called an innovation, vs. MP xw - available Balochi seems to share the latter two features (cf. II 2.2.1.5.3, 2.2.1.5.4) while unfortunately no data are available which would permit one to say anything about the first one (cf. II 2.2.1.5.2). Kurdish, on the other hand, goes with Persian again and does not share any NWIr. innovation. Other changes which have been considered as common NWIr. innovations (e.g. m > w) will rather be independent developments (cf. KORN 2003:56ff.).

The question remains whether the "Transitional WIr. languages" may be established as a group in the sense of being a third member in between North and South Western Iranian, i.e. whether (preferably typologically marked) features can be found which are

neither present in the NWIr. nor in the SWIr. languages. Evidence for this scenario has not yet been discovered. For the time being, it seems that the characteristics which have lent a partially SWIr. look to Kurdish and Balochi may be explained by the influence of Persian at various points during history, starting with the time of the Achaemenian empire (thus e.g. s(s) for PIE \*tr). Unfortunately, the data do not permit us to determine the character of the contacts with the Persian language and its speakers. The term "Transitional Western Iranian" thus designates languages which have witnessed the repeated, if not continuing, influence of Persian – an influence which has been strong enough to effect the adoption of typically Persian sound changes.

The impression of continuous contact with Persian is confirmed by the Balochi vocabulary. Among the lexical items of various semantic fields, one finds an impressive number of Persian words from different periods, the oldest stage being represented by dap "mouth" which recalls Av. zafar/n-, but with typically Persian treatment of the word-initial consonant, the MP period by words like pahlūg "side" and khard "portion", and the NP time by a host of words from literally every sphere and including numerous words of Arabic origin. But the Persian loanwords are by no means the only borrowings in the Balochi lexicon: words from several Indic languages play a considerable role as well, e.g. (to cite but a few) pupī "father's sister", pul(l) "flower", sik(k)- / sik(k)it "learn", lēṭ- / lēṭit "lie down". Not so numerous, but not less remarkable are borrowings from Pashto (kuṛāsag "grandchild", kōṭa "room") and Brahui (bal(l)uk "grandmother", sil "skin"). Interdialectal borrowing is not rare either.

A particularly interesting group of loanwords is the terms for animals such as horses and camels (whereas the word for the smaller animals, *pas*, is inherited). Along with the fact that many terms for colours as well as the Balochi (and Kurdish) numerals have been borrowed from Persian, this situation mirrors a social situation of the Baloch as shepherds coming to the bazaar to sell the products of their sheep and to buy what they do not produce themselves, including the bigger animals and cloth, from people who speak other languages. The kinship terms (cf. III 2), a sizeable portion of which comes from Sindhi and Urdu, reflect, among other things, intense contact on the family level with the settled population of the Indus valley.

It is to be expected that the position of Balochi as a Transitional Western Ir. language can be confirmed by the study of Balochi historical morphology, and by studies of the history of neighbouring Iranian languages. Such studies are thus an urgent desideratum.

# V. Appendix

# 1. Morphological sketch

The aim of this chapter is to give the reader an impression of the morphological system of Balochi and to provide the grammatical information which might be necessary to make use of the other parts of this work. It is not the purpose of these pages to write a grammar of "the Balochi language", though. What follows will only outline the most important characteristics of Balochi morphology. It is thus to be taken *cum grano salis* throughout, since exceptions to the statements made below or additional variants might be found in some (sub-)dialect. The survey is also a purely synchronical one, diachronical aspects being reserved for future studies.<sup>1</sup>

As has been seen before, Balochi dialects differ considerably in many aspects, and the morphology is no exception. This chapter will chiefly be based on the following sources as representatives of the three major dialect groups: BUDDRUSS 1988 for the WBal. dialect of Afghanistan, FARRELL 1990 for the (predominantly SBal.) dialect of Karachi, DAMES 1913 for Eastern Balochi. BARANZEHI 2003 will be used for the Sarāwānī dialect of Iran. The forms cited below will tend to appear in the order from west via south to east. Dialect categorisations are for the most part omitted, however, since the distribution of the forms does not necessarily coincide with dialect borders, and some dialects have more than one form. Forms involving a nasalised vowel are noted when a corresponding form with vowel + n is not found in the sources just cited.

#### 1.1 Nouns

The categories found in the Balochi nominal system are the following:

- numbers: singular (sg.), plural (pl.)
- cases: direct (dir.),<sup>2</sup> oblique (obl.), object (obj.), genitive (gen.),<sup>3</sup> vocative (voc.). There is no grammatical gender in any Balochi dialect.

The direct case is the case denoting the subject in sentences constructed nominatively and the object in sentences constructed ergatively. The oblique case is used for the

<sup>1</sup> Morphemes the history of which is discussed in the previous chapters may be found in the index. For the history of the nominal system, cf. KORN (frthc. 2).

<sup>2</sup> Since some Balochi dialects use ergative constructions (see below), the term "direct case" (= absolute or rectus) is used here. However, many descriptions have used the term "nominative".

<sup>3</sup> Some Bal. dialects do not have a genitive case (see below).

agent in ergative sentences (see below), for direct and indirect objects, with prepositions and in locative function. The object case may be used instead of the oblique to denote direct and indirect objects in nominative and sometimes also in ergative constructions, particularly if some emphasis is required.<sup>4</sup> As in Persian, objects are only marked when they are definite ("identified object marking"). The genitive is used for possessors and with postpositions (see below). The vocative is used for addressing someone.

	dir.	obl.	obj.	gen.	voc.
sg.	-Ø	$-ar{a}^5$	-ārā	-ai, -ē, -ī, -a, -∅	-Ø
pl.	-20	$-\bar{a}n,^6$ $-\bar{a}n\bar{a}$	-ānā, -ānrā	$-\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}^7$	-ān
1. Bal. case system and endings					

Some dialects add further forms. For instance, there is an "obl. II" in  $-ay\bar{a}$  (sg.),  $-\bar{a}n\bar{\iota}a$  (pl.) in some WBal. dialects with mainly locative functions (BUDDRUSS 1988:45). Conversely, in Bal. dialects of Iran, the dir. and obl. cases tend to fall together, presumably under the influence of NP (cf. JAHANI 2003). The resulting system may be described thus:

	nom.	obj.	gen.	
sg.	-Ø	$-ar{a}(rar{a})$	-ey	
pl.	-ān	-ānā	-ānī	
2. Reduced case system of Iranian Balochi				

In some of these dialects, the gen. is replaced by the  $e\bar{z}\bar{a}fe$ -construction (cf. JAHANI 1994, 2003:128, BARANZEHI 2003:81), e.g.

• *manzel-e māwat* "our house".

There is no definite article. The indefinite article is  $-\bar{e}$ , e.g.  $kit\bar{a}b-\bar{e}$  "a book".

<sup>4</sup> For the use of cases in ergative constructions, cf. KORN (frthc. 1).

<sup>5</sup> For a variant, cf. p. 251, 260.

<sup>6</sup> In several dialects, the obl.pl. appears as  $-\tilde{a}$  (cf. p. 213f., 238, 254, 263).

<sup>7</sup> For a variant found in WBal. dialects, cf. p. 251.

<sup>8</sup> For the etymology, cf. p. 102, for a variant, cf. p. 260.

When two semantically similar nouns are enumerated, nominal endings and the indefinite article may be used only with the second noun (BUDDRUSS 1988:49), e.g.

• watī dast u dēm-ā šušt-un "I washed my (lit.: own) hand[s] and face".

## 1.2 Pronouns

## Personal pronouns

The forms of the personal pronouns differ considerably, so it is necessary to cite forms for the three dialect groups. With the exception of the vocative, the cases are the same as for the nouns. For the 3rd person, the demonstrative pronouns are used (see below).

			dir.	obl.	obj.	gen.	
sg.	1st <sup>9</sup>	WBal.	man		manā	$m(a)nar{\imath}$	
		SBal.	man	manā	manārā	m(a)m	
		EBal.	mã, ma, mẫ	тā	manā, manā	таї, таї	
	2nd <sup>10</sup>	WBal.	taw, to	а	tarā		
		SBal.	tau, tō t(a)rā		tarārā	$t^{(h)}a\bar{\imath},\ t^{(h)}\bar{\imath}$	
		EBal.	t <sup>h</sup> au, t <sup>h</sup> a		t <sup>h</sup> arā		
pl.	1st	WBal. <sup>11</sup>	(am)mā		(am)mārā	(am)mai, mē	
		SBal.	mā		mārā	(um/mui, me	
		EBal.	mā		$mar{a}r(ar{a})$	maĩ	
	2nd <sup>12</sup>	WBal.	š(u)mč	ā	šumārā	šumai, šumē	
		SBal.	šumā š		šumārā	sumai, sume	
		EBal.	š(a)wā, šā		š(a)wār, šār	š(a)wāī, šāī	
<b>3.</b> In:	flection of	f the Bal. perso	onal pronouns		-		

<sup>9</sup> For variants of man and its flexive forms, cf. p. 238, 244, 251, 263.

<sup>10</sup> For etymological discussion, cf. p. 102, for variants, cf. p. 251.

<sup>11</sup> The forms  $am(m)\bar{a}$ - are used in Afghan and Turkmen Balochi (cf. p. 115). Cf. also p. 238.

<sup>12</sup> For the variant *šmā*, cf. p. 251. For further discussion, cf. p. 126, 232f.

A separate form for the 1pl. inclusive  $(m\bar{a}-\check{s}(u)m\bar{a})$  has been noted for Afghanistan (BUDDRUSS 1988:51), Turkmenistan (SOKOLOV 1956:69) and Sarāwānī; the latter also has an additional exclusive  $(m\bar{a}-wat, BARANZEHI 2003:85)$ . The object case is used for the direct or indirect object throughout. For the agent and after prepositions, some dialects use the oblique case, others the direct case (cf. KORN, frthc. 1).

## **Demonstrative pronouns**

		dir.	obl.	obj.	gen.
near	sg.	$\bar{e}$ ;	ēšī; išīā	ēširā; išīārā	$\bar{e}\check{s}\bar{\imath}(\bar{a});\;i\check{s}\bar{\imath}\bar{e}$
	pl.	$\bar{e}\check{s}^{13}$	ēšān; išān	ēšānā; išānā	ēšānī; išānī
far	sg.	$\bar{a}^{14}$	āyā	āirā, āyārā	āyē; āī
	pl.		āwān, āyān, āhān	āwānā, āyānā, āhānā	āwānī; āyānī; āhānī
4. Bal. demonstrative pronouns					

#### **Pronominal suffixes**

In addition to the independent pronouns, most Bal. dialects have pronominal suffixes which are used in the functions of agent, direct and indirect object and as possessive pronouns. They vary considerably among the dialects. In many dialects, only 3rd person suffixes are used, but some sources also have suffixes for the other persons:<sup>15</sup>

	sg.	pl.			
1st	-un; EBal $\tilde{a}$ , - $\tilde{u}$ ; IrBalom	-in; EBal $\tilde{a}$ , - $\tilde{u}$			
2nd	-it	-iš			
3rd	$-\bar{l}, -\bar{e}, -i\check{s}$	$-\bar{e}\check{s},\;-i\check{s},\;-\bar{e};\;\mathrm{EBal.}\;-\tilde{\tilde{a}}$			
<b>5.</b> Bal.	5. Bal. pronominal suffixes				

<sup>13</sup> For a possible variant, cf. p. 199. ān, īn are also found (cf. p. 103, 186, 201, 233, 238, 243).

<sup>14</sup> For details about  $\bar{a}$  and its forms, cf. p. 102f., 162.

<sup>15</sup> The Sarāwānī dialect is particularly rich in pronominal suffixes (BARANZEHI 2003:86).

### Other pronominal elements

- wat "own" is used as a reflexive pronoun (cf. the example sentence in V 1.1). 16
- kai "who" and  $\check{c}\bar{e}$  "which" are inflected like demonstrative pronouns.

## 1.3 Adjectives

Adjectives in attributive position are used with the suffix  $-\bar{e}n$ .<sup>17</sup>

The comparative is formed by adding -tir,  $^{18}$  the superlative by  $-tir\bar{e}n$  (FARRELL 1990:66), e.g.  $\check{s}ar(r)tir$  "better",  $\check{s}ar(r)tir\bar{e}n$  "best" from  $\check{s}ar(r)$  "good".

However, some dialects prefer to use analytic expressions like "from X big" (BUDDRUSS 1988:50), e.g.

- *ša muččān dārindagēn mardum* "the wealthiest man of all (lit.: from all wealthy man)" (AXENOV 2003:252),
- $\bar{a}\bar{i}\bar{a}$   $\check{c}\bar{e}$  mazan "bigger (lit.: from him/her/it big)" (FARRELL 2003:197).

#### 1.4 Adverbs

Certain adjectives in obl. case may function as adverbs, e.g.  $sak-\bar{a}$  "hard" (adv.), EBal.  $aksar\bar{a}$  "generally" (from Ur. aksar). Ar. adverbs in -an appear as  $-\bar{a}$  in Balochi, e.g.  $awal\bar{a}$  "at first" (from NP-Ar. awwal), probably in analogy to the obl. formations.

Further adverbial expressions are formed with the help of the postposition *sarā* "on" (obl. of *sar* "head"), e.g. *zōr-ē sarā* "powerfully" (FARRELL 1990:68).

#### 1.5 Prepositions and postpositions

Both prepositions and postpositions are found in Balochi. Those dialects heavily influenced by Persian prefer prepositions, those in direct contact with Ind. languages chiefly use postpositions (cf. JAHANI 2003:127, FARRELL 2003:195ff.).

<sup>16</sup> The use of *wat* is entirely parallel to that of NP  $x^wud$  with which it is etymologically cognate (cf. p. 122).

<sup>17 -</sup> $\bar{e}n$  appears as - $\tilde{e}$  under the same circumstances as the obl.pl. - $\tilde{a}$  (cf. p. 213, 238, 243, 263).

<sup>18</sup> For the vowel, cf. p. 195. Noteworthy synchronically irregular forms include *mas-tir* "bigger" (from *mazan*), *kas-tir* "smaller" (from *kasān*) and *bus-tir* "higher" (from *burz*), cf. p. 97f.

Many postpositions are originally nouns in the obl. case. Therefore the noun is in the gen. case, e.g.

- čuk-ē dēm-ā "in front of (lit.: in the face of) the child" (SBal.);
- $\bar{e}\check{s}$ - $\bar{a}n\bar{\iota}$  pad- $\bar{a}$  "behind (lit.: in the trace of) them" (WBal.).

In dialects influenced by Ind. languages, prepositions are mostly used with the genitive. In the dialects influenced by Persian, prepositions are for the most part used with the obl. of nouns and with the dir. case of pronouns of the 1st and 2nd person, e.g.

• bi man "to me",  $g\bar{o} z\bar{a}g\bar{a}$  "with the son" (WBal.),  $ba\check{j}\bar{a}\bar{e}$  + gen. "instead of" (SBal.).

Circumpositions occur in most dialects; they are composed of one of the most common prepositions, i.e. mostly  $a\check{c}$ ,  $\check{c}a$  (etc.) "of", to some degree also bi "to(wards)", and one of the postpositions, e.g.

• bi darwāzagai burzagā "above the door" (WBal.),  $a\check{z}$  ...  $p^h a\delta \bar{a}$  "behind" (EBal.).

## 1.6 Noun phrases

The Bal. noun phrase is head-final as a rule: genitives are placed before the noun, e.g.

• man-ī brāt-ē kitāb (SBal.) / mn-ī brās-ai kitāb (WBal.) "my brother's book(s)".

The same applies to attributive adjectives, e.g. *mazan-ēn asp* "big horse(s)", and to adpositions, since, on the whole, postpositions dominate.

### 1.7 Verbs

This subsection describes the "minimal system" of verbal morphology common to most Balochi dialects. In addition, every (group of) dialect(s) has further formations formed from the elements discussed below.

Negated forms are built with the prefix na- and the prohibitive prefix ma-.

#### 1.7.1 Verbal stems

As in most Ir. languages, the Bal. verbal system is based on the dichotomy of present stem and past stem. Most past stems are formed from the corresponding present stems by adding the suffixes -t, -it and, in a small number of cases,  $-\bar{a}t$ , e.g.  $gw\bar{a}r$ -  $/gw\bar{a}r$ -t "rain",  $ra\check{j}$ -  $/ra\check{j}$ -it "colour",  $ba\check{s}k$ -  $/ba\check{s}k$ - $\bar{a}t$  "forgive". Some verbs have synchronically unpredictable past stems, reflecting OIr. formations (e.g. kan- /kurt "do").

## 1.7.2 Verbal adjectives and nouns

A present participle is formed by adding  $-\bar{a}n$  to the present stem.

The suffix -ag (often reduced to -a when no ending follows) added to the past stem gives the perfect participle.

The formation of the infinitive depends on the dialects: many dialects use -ag added to the present stem. In the remaining dialects (all of the WBal. group), the infinitive is formed by adding -in to the past stem.

## 1.7.3 The copula and the verbal endings

As the verbal endings are for the most part identical with the corresponding forms of the copula, they may conveniently be presented together in one table. As usual, the endings differ depending on the dialects.<sup>19</sup>

		present	copula	past		
sg.	1st	$-\bar{\imath}n; -\bar{a}n$ $-un; -\bar{o}; -\bar{a}n$		ı		
	2nd	-ai; -ē				
	3rd	$-t$ , $-\bar{t}t$ ; $-\bar{t}$ ; IrBal. $-e(t)$	int, $\tilde{e}$ ; IrBal. $o$	-Ø		
pl.	1st	-an; -ēn; -ōm -an; -ēn; -ū				
	2nd	-it;	$; -\bar{e}(t)$			
	3rd	-ant; -ã				
<b>6.</b> Ba	6. Bal. verbal endings and copula					

Many dialects have forms for the past tense of the copula which are formed from a base at- to which the copula forms as shown above are added (the 3sg. is without ending: at). Other dialects use the past stem of "become", i.e.  $b\bar{\imath}t^{-20}$  plus verbal endings for the same purpose.

<sup>19</sup> For additional variants, cf. p. 238, 263.

<sup>20</sup>  $b\bar{\imath}t$  is a dialectal variant of  $b\bar{\imath}t$  (cf. p. 197).

## 1.7.4 Ergativity<sup>21</sup>

Many dialects of Balochi show "split ergativity", i.e. in all tenses formed from the past stem (including those formed from the perf.part.), the treatment of a verb depends on whether it is transitive or intransitive. An intransitive verb is inflected according to the nominative pattern as in the present tense, the endings of the verb agreeing with the subject.

A transitive verb, on the other hand, shows the logical subject (also called agent) in the obl. case. In a regular ergative construction, the object is in the dir. case. Other constructions are also found, however. In some dialects, agreement of the verb with the object is found if the latter is in the 3rd person, i.e. the ending of the 3pl. may be used if the object is a third person in the plural.

verb	cases used	verbal agreement			
itr.	subject: dir.	with the subject (in person and number)			
tr.	agent: obl. object: dir., obl. or obj.	with the object (in number) if 3rd pers. (optional)			
<b>7.</b> Use	7. Use of cases in the tenses formed from the Bal. past stem				

In the dialects with a reduced case system (cf. p. 332), both agent and object of ergative constructions are in the nominative. Pronominal suffixes are widely used to mark the agent.

The dialects differ to a considerable degree in their use of ergative construction, ranging from a more or less consistent ergative pattern to a complete substitution by the nominative construction in some WBal. dialects. This variation may be attributed to the influence of neighbouring languages (Ind. languages with ergativity potentially strengthening the preservation of ergativity vs. entirely nominative New Persian, cf. FARRELL 2003:197ff.).

<sup>21</sup> For more information about the situation of the ergative construction in Balochi dialects, cf. KORN (frthc. 1).

#### **1.7.5** Tenses

#### **Present**

The present endings are joined to the present stem to build the present tense. Some verbs have a 3sg. ending -t (vs. the more common ending  $-\bar{\iota}(t)$ ) in at least some dialects, sometimes with lengthening of the vowel: jant "hits", dant "gives", raut etc. "goes",  $z\bar{a}nt$  "knows", raut "does", raut "takes", raut "eats".

Some verbs show a prefix k- which does not change the function of the form in any way.

## Simple past

The past endings are added to the past stem of intransitive verbs to produce a simple past. It seems that in (some?) Eastern dialects, the perfect is also used for the simple past.

With transitive verbs, the bare past stem is used with the subject in the obl. case (ergative construction, see above), e.g.

Sābirā ē hawāl uškit "Sabir (obl.) heard this news (dir.)" (WBal.);
 āyā gōk kušt "he/she (obl.) killed the cow (dir.)",
 kučikā hamā jinikārā dīst "the dog (obl.) saw that girl (obj.)" (SBal.).

The verb may agree with the object in that an ending is facultatively added if the object is understood to be plural, e.g.

• man xat likit-ã "I wrote letters" (SBal.).

Some dialects pattern nominatively throughout, the personal endings being used for all verbs, e.g. (WBal. from Afghanistan)

• man dōšī watī mēš-ā mārit-un "last night I counted my sheep (obl.pl.)".

These forms are called "aorist" by some authors since they are also used for the future tense and in statements of a general nature, and there is a separate present tense of a structure parallel to Engl. *I am going* in most dialects. However, the term "present tense" is used here, since, in the first place, the forms do denote present tense, and their use for the future has parallels in the present tense of many languages; periphrastic constructions of the Engl. kind may conveniently be termed present continuous (thus e.g. FARRELL 1990:74).

Other authors use the term "aorist" for what is called subjunctive here.

### **Compound tenses**

The basis of the compound tenses is the perfect participle. They are constructed ergatively in those dialects which pattern ergatively.

The present perfect uses the perf.part. with the copula present, but without ending in the 3sg., e.g.

•  $man\ kapt-ag-\tilde{o}$  "I have fallen";  $\bar{a}\ kapt-a$  "he/she has fallen";  $man\ gu\check{s}t-a$  "I have said" (SBal.);  $m\bar{a}\ zahm\bar{a}\ \bar{a}r\vartheta-a\gamma-ant$  "I (obl.) have brought the swords (obl.pl.)" (EBal., with 3pl. ending on the verb for the pl. object).

The past perfect uses the cop.past, e.g.

• jat-at-un "I have hit"; āwā kalāt-ē bastag-at-ant "they (obl.) had built a fort (dir.)" (WBal.); man kapta bīt-ag-ō "I had fallen" (SBal.).

# 1.7.6 Mood, voice and aspect<sup>23</sup>

The prefix  $bi^{-24}$  is used with the present tense to form a subjunctive, its use being exactly parallel to the NP subjunctive. bi- plus the present stem yields the imperative sg.; the pl. is identical with the 2pl. subj.

bi- with the past stem and the suffix  $-\bar{e}n$ - (according to FARRELL 1990:75 also without  $-\bar{e}n$ -) gives a form which is used as an irrealis and/or an iterative past: ki man bi- $d\bar{a}$  $\dot{s}t$ - $\bar{e}n$ -un "(each time) when I had" (BUDDRUSS 1988:61), na-ke  $\bar{o}da$  be-rapt- $\bar{e}n$ - $\bar{a}$  "I wish I had gone there" (BARANZEHI 2003:99).

Forms with bi- are negated by replacing the prefix by ma-.

A passive voice is also found, although not too frequently, and rather rarely with an agent expressed. It is made from the infinitive (cf. p. 337) with  $b\bar{u}t$  "was/became" as auxiliary, e.g.

• *lānč girag bītagitā* "boats (dir.) had been caught (pl.)" (SBal.).

<sup>23</sup> For a discussion of some material belonging here, cf. MošKALO 1987.

<sup>24</sup> The vowel may be *u* when the following syllable has a labial vowel. The vowel may also be omitted, the prefix *b*- being assimilated to the following vowel (BUDDRUSS 1988:59), e.g. *p-kašš* "pull!" (BARANZEHI 2003:96).

In some dialects, a "verbal element" a is used with the present and past tenses to give an imperfective aspect. It is enclitic to the word preceding the verb, and thus generally written as if it were a suffix,  $^{25}$  e.g.  $r\bar{a}st$ -a  $gu\bar{s}\bar{t}$  "he/she says correctly".

# 1.7.7 Periphrastic and modal constructions

In Southern Balochi, continous present and past tenses are formed using the infinitive in the obl. case with the copula (cf. FARRELL 1990:73ff.), thus

• man guš-ag-ā yā "I am saying"; man guš-ag-ā itō "I was saying".

Depending on the linguistic area, modality may be constructed in the Persian way (verb meaning "want, should etc." + subjunctive of the full verb), e.g.

- $l\bar{o}_{t}\bar{t}n\ b$ - $r\bar{t}n$  "I want to go" (WBal.), or from a verbal noun + auxiliary, somewhat along Ind. models, <sup>26</sup> e.g.
- $man\ rawag\ l\bar{o}t\tilde{a}$  "I want to go";  $man\bar{a}\ rawag\bar{\iota}\ \tilde{e}$  "I have to go" (SBal.); "can" may be expressed with kan- "do" as auxiliary, 27 e.g.
- wāntagā kanai "can you sing?" (WBal.); tau wapt kanai "you can sleep"; āyā kapt kutagā "they could have fallen" (SBal.); šut na-kurt "he/she could not go" (IrBal.).

Of similar character are SBal. constructions such as

• man guš-ān  $\tilde{a}$  "I keep saying"; man gušagī  $\tilde{a}$  "I am about to say".

Note that all these constructions pattern ergatively in the relevant dialects if the finite verb is transitive, thence e.g.

•  $\bar{a}y\tilde{a}$  gušt kutagā "they (obl.) could have said" (kan- / kurt tr.);  $\bar{a}$  gušagā itā "they were saying" ("to be" itr.),

whereas in compound tenses, it is the (in)transitivity of the main verb which determines the construction, e.g.

•  $\bar{a}$  kapta  $b\bar{t}tag\bar{a}$  "they had fallen" vs.  $\bar{a}y\bar{a}$  gušta  $b\bar{t}ta$  "they had said" (see above).

<sup>25</sup> For further discussion, cf. BUDDRUSS 1977:9ff., 1988:62f. SOKOLOV 1956:84 seems to have been the first to note that the function of *a* corresponds somehow to that of CNP *mī*-. The parallelism goes so far that an expression †man-a dārīn is as unacceptable as NP †man mī-dāram (SOKOLOV 1956:84).

<sup>26</sup> Cf. Korn 2001:6.

For a discussion of this construction, cf. Zaršenās 2002. The statement by Zaršenās 2002:259 of such a construction not being found in Western MIr. languages is not correct since it does exist in Parthian (Sundermann 1989a:129, Durkin-Meisterernst 2002:57f.).

#### 1.7.8 Causatives

Causatives are built by adding the suffix  $-\bar{e}n$ - to the present stem, e.g.

man čuk-ā ras-ēn-ā "I transport the children (lit.: cause the children to arrive)"
 (SBal.).

Double causatives occur in many dialects. The suffix is  $-\bar{a}\bar{e}n$ - (EBal. -ain-), e.g.

• *man āyā čē čuk-ā ras-āēn-ā* "I make him/her transport the children (lit.: cause the children to be transported by him/her)" (FARRELL 1990:49).

## 1.8 Conjunctions

As Balochi is mainly a spoken language, the syntax is usually rather simple, and texts tend to be composed of main clauses for the most part.<sup>28</sup> It is therefore not surprising that the conjunctions which do occur have been borrowed from neighbouring languages, e.g. *agar* "if", *lēkin* "but".

#### 1.9 Word formation

Some of the most common derivations are:

- from adjectives:
  - $-\bar{i}$  forms abstract nouns (cf. p. 121);
- from nouns (cf. II 2.4.4.1):
   adjective suffixes without specific meaning: -ak, -ag, -ūg, -īg, -ī etc.;
   -ik(k), -uk, -luk have diminutive meaning;
   denominative verbs can be formed from nouns without the addition of suffixes (cf. III 4).
- from verbs:
  - $-\bar{o}k$  forms agent nouns from the present stem of verbs (cf. p. 101, 163).

<sup>28</sup> Note that the published texts are fairy tales, stories of legendary character etc., and samples of everyday speech like those in FARRELL 2003:205ff. create the same impression. It is possible, however, that free speech and conversation, at least from certain dialects, might show more complex structures. The collection of data from as many sorts of text as possible and from the diverse dialects is an urgent desideratum.

## 2. Etymological index

The etymological index on the following pages gives a survey of the Balochi words discussed or mentioned in the chapters above and the most important cognates (New Persian, Avestan, Parthian and Old Indian), as well as the most relevant literature. Each entry is to be understood as a kind of notecard on which only the most important catchwords have been written. It is not the aim of the index to list all cognates, nor are the cognates in every case necessarily completely equivalent to the Balochi word with regard to their morphological structure or other details.

The order of the lemmata follows the Arabic alphabet. Arabic loanwords are grouped according to their Balochi orthography/pronunciation (i.e.  $\langle \dot{n} \rangle$  as h etc.,  $\langle \dot{r} \rangle$  under p), provided the latter is found in some source (otherwise the word is found where the Arabic orthography would have it). Nasal vowels are treated as the corresponding vowel + n and are only noted as such if no variant with vowel + n has been found. The aspiration ( $^h$ ) found in some dialects is not taken into account in the ordering. Following the practice of SHG and other dictionaries in Arabic script, words with  $\bar{a}$ - ( $\bar{i}$ ) come before those beginning with other vowels (i.e. i). Words with variants with  $\bar{a}$ - and a- are found under  $\bar{a}$ -.

The Balochi words are cited in their SWBal. form if available. Verbs are cited as *present stem / past stem* (the same applies to Prth. NP and MP verbs). The past stem of verbs which differ from the corresponding present stem in a synchronically unpredictable way are cited as a separate lemma. In the case of past stems in Common Balochi \*kt which have different forms in each dialect group (see II 2.2.1.1 and the subchapters of II 3.2), the SBal. variant (-tk) is cited as a representative of all variants.

GEB is cited according to the numbers given in GEIGER 1890, all other works according to pages. In case GEB is in need of correction or addition, the first mentioning of these (if any is available) or other works relevant for the word in question are also referred to. Note that in a number of cases, the works referred to do not discuss the Balochi word, but the NP cognate. In case of obvious borrowings from NP-Ar., there is usually no reference given as to who was the first to observe the borrowing. For details see the cited chapter.

Words in brackets indicate that it is not sure whether the given word belongs here or not, or that they are not related, but cited to show what some language has for the concept in question.

- <sup>‡</sup> means that the existence of the words is questionable.
- ≈ marks words which are not direct cognates of the respective Balochi words.
- "= NP" means that the Bal. word might be genuine according to Bal. sound laws, but might also have been borrowed from NP. The same method of marking a possible loanword is used with other languages (e.g. = Ur. means that the word might come from Ur. or be genuine).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. I 3.3.

Balochi	Ir. cognates (Av. if not noted otherwise)	OInd.	NP	references
ā (dem.pron.) "that"			≈ ān	II 2.1.3.3, 2.4.3.1, 3.1.1.2, 3.2.1.3fn., 3.2.2.3, V 1.4 GEB 8
-ā (obl.sg.)				II 3.2.2.2fn., 3.2.2.3, 3.2.3.2, 3.2.4.2, V 1.1
-ā (adv.suff.)				V 1.3
ābrēšum "silk"			abrēšum	II 3.1.2.2.2 BAILEY 1931:425f. NP loanword
ābū "pony"			yābū	II 3.3.1.7 NP-Turk. loanword
āp "water"	<i>āp</i> - Prth. <i>āb</i>	ấρ-	āb	II 2.1.1.1, 3.2.1.1 GEB 12
āpus "pregnant"	apuðra- Prth. <brbwhr></brbwhr>		ābistan	II 2.2.1.4, 3.2.1.2 GEB 13 HORN 1893:2
-āt (past stem suff.)	Prthād		-ād	II 3.1.2.2, III 5, V 1.6 see also -aϑ-, -it, -t
ātk etc. (past stem of āy- "come")	$\bar{a} + gata$ - Prth. $\bar{a}\gamma ad$	$\bar{a}$ + gatá-	āmad	II 3.1.2.1, 3.2.1.1, 3.2.2.1, 3.2.3.1, 3.2.4.1, III 5.1 GEB 21
āč "fire"			ātaš, ātiš	II 3.2.1.1.3, 3.3.2.1 NP loanword see also <i>ās</i>
āčiš "fire, ember"				II 3.3.2.1fn. see <i>āč</i>
ādam(ī)-zāt "human (being)"			$\bar{a}dam(\bar{\imath})$ - $z\bar{a}d$	II 3.3.1.4 NP loanword
ādēnk "mirror"	Prth. <''dyng>		āyina	II 2.1.1.1, 2.1.3.3, 2.4.1.2, 3.1.2.3, 3.1.3.3, 3.2.1.3 GEB 10 MACKENZIE 1986:31

ār- / ārt "bring"	$\bar{a} + \sqrt{\text{bar}}$ Prth. $\bar{a}$ -war- $/\bar{a}$ -wurd	$\bar{a} + \sqrt{b^h r}$	ā(wa)r- / āward	II 2.1.3.3fn., 3.1.1.4, III 5.4 GEB 14 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:555 NP loanword
<i>ārt</i> "flour"	aša- "ground"		ārd	II 3.1.2.2, 3.3.1.4 GEB 15 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:134 = NP
ārunj, ārung "elbow"	arəϑn-	aratní-	āranj	II 3.3.2.3, III 1 HORN 1893:4 KLINGENSCHMITT 1972:63 BAILEY 1979:8a EWAia I:109 NP loanword
(h)ārōs "wedding"			<sup>c</sup> arūs	II 2.4.1.2, 3.1.2.2.2 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:32 NP-Ar. loanword
āzāt "free"	āzāta- "noble"		āzād	II 3.3.1.4 = NP see also $z\bar{a}y$ -
āzmāy- (caus. āzmāēn-) "try"			āzmāy- / āzmūd	II 3.1.2.2fn., III 5.4 GEB 23 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:555 NP loanword
ăžmān "sky"	asman- Prth. āsmān	áśman-	āsmān	II 3.1.1.3, 3.1.2.2.1, 3.1.2.2.2 GEB 22 see also <i>ăsmān</i>
ās "fire"	ātar-/ āϑr- Prth. ādur		āzar	II 2.2.1.4, 2.3.1.3, 3.1.1.1, 3.2.1.1 GEB 16
āsk "gazelle"	<i>āsu-</i> "quick"	<i>āśú-</i> "quick"	āhū	II 2.1.1.1 GEB 19 GEIGER 1893:190
ās-gēj "lighter"				II 3.2.1.1.3 GEIGER 1891:426 from $\bar{a}s + g\bar{e}j$ -
ăsmān, ăzmān "sky"	asman- Prth. āsmān	áśman-	āsmān	II 3.1.2.2fn., 3.2.1.1fn., 3.3.1.2 NP loanword see <i>ažmān</i>

ăsmānak(k), ăzmānak(k) "story"				II 3.1.2.1, 3.1.2.2.1, 3.1.2.3.1, 3.3.1.2, 3.3.1.5
āsin "iron"	Prth. āsun		āhan	II 2.1.2.3, 2.2.2.3fn., 2.2.4fn., 3.1.2.3.1 GEB 18 BENVENISTE 1935:133
āšik,āšix, āšig, ʿāšiq "lover, in love"			<sup>c</sup> āšiq	II 1.2.2 NP-Ar. loanword
āšk "that side" āškā "over there"				II 3.1.1.2 BUDDRUSS 1974:28ff. see $\bar{a}$ and $ka\bar{s}$ see also $\bar{e}\bar{s}k$ , $i\bar{s}k$
āk "earth"		<i>ā́sa</i> - "ashes"	xāk	II 2.4.1.2 KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:213 <sup>77</sup> = NP see also $h\bar{a}k$
ākibat, ākubat etc. "future"			<sup>c</sup> āqibat	II 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 3.1.2.2.2, 3.1.2.3, 3.3.2.3 NP-Ar. loanword
āgā "lord"			āqā	II 1.2.2 NP-Turk. loanword
āmuxta "accustomed"	fra-muxti- "untying of shoes" Prth. ammōxtag "learned"	√muc "untie"	<i>āmōxta</i> "learnt"	II 3.1.2.2 EWAia II:382 NP loanword
ā-murg "egg"	YAv. aēm (acc.)		xāya	II 2.1.3.4, 2.4.1.3, 2.4.1.4 SCHINDLER 1969:160 see also <i>haik</i>
āmag "raw"		āmá-	xām	II 2.4.1.3 = NP see also <i>hāmag</i>
ān (dem.pron.) "that"			ān	II 2.1.3.3fn., 3.2.1.1.2fn., 3.2.2.3fn., V 1.4fn. = NP
(-)ān (1sg.ending + cop.)				II 3.1.3.3fn., 3.2.4.3, V 1.6 see also <i>un</i> , $\bar{\varrho}$ , $-\bar{l}n$
-ān (obl.pl.)	Prthān		pl. <i>-ān</i>	II 3.1.3.3, 3.2.1.3, 3.2.2.3, 3.2.3.3, 3.2.4.3, V 1.1

-ān (part.pres.)	Prthān		-ān	II 3.2.2.3, 3.2.4.3, V 1.6
- <i>ā</i> (pron.suff. 1sg.+pl., 3pl.)				V 1.4 see also -un, -in, -iš, - $\bar{e}(\bar{s})$ , - $\bar{u}$
ān-gāt "yet"	gātu- OP gāðu-	gātú-	ān-gāh	II 2.1.2.1fn., 3.1.2.2 EWAia I:483f.
-ānī (gen.pl.)				II 3.2.3.2, V 1.1
āhin "iron"				II 3.1.2.3.1fn. NP loanword see also <i>āsin</i>
āy-, yāy- (/ ātk) "come"	$\bar{a} + \sqrt{\text{ay "go"}}$ (Prth. $\bar{a}s$ -)	$\bar{a} + \sqrt{i}$ "go"	āy- (/ āmad)	II 2.1.3.4, 2.3.1.3, 3.2.1.1, 3.2.4.1, III 5.1 GEB 21
āyag, āig "egg"			xāya	II 2.1.3.4, 2.4.1.3fn., 3.3.2.1 NP loanword see also <i>āmurg</i>
-āēn- (caus.suff.)			≈ -ān-	V 1.6 see also -ēn-
āindag "future"			āyanda	II 3.3.2.1 NP loanword see $\bar{a}y$ -
-a (verbal element)				V 1.6
$ab(b)\bar{a},\ ab(b)\bar{o}$ "father"				III 2 Ar. loanword
iptī, (pi)tī "other"	OP $duvit\bar{a}^{\circ}$ Prth. $bid(\bar{\imath}g)$	dvitīya-	dīgar	II 2.2.1.5, 3.1.2.1 GEB 386 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:51
apurs "juniper"	hapərəsī-		awirs, aris, burs "fruit of juniper"	II 2.3.1.1, 2.3.2 GEB 5 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:40
aps "horse"				II 2.4.1.4, 3.2.2.1 see <i>asp</i>

(h)apūtag (a plant)				II 2.3.1.1 Morgenstierne 1948:290
at- (cop.past) "was"				II 3.2.3.1, V 1.6
(-)it (2pl.ending + cop.)	≈ Prthēd		≈ -īd	II 3.1.2.2.1, 3.2.4.3fn., V 1.6 see also $\bar{e}$ , $-\bar{e}(t)$
-it (past stem suff.)			-īd	II 3.1.2.2.1, III 5, V 1.6 see also -āt, -t
-it (pron.suff. 2sg.)			-at	V 1.4
atr, at(t)ar "perfume"			<sup>c</sup> aṭr	II 3.1.2.4, 3.3.1.5 NP-Ar. loanword
EBalaϑ- (past stem suff.)				II 3.1.2.2, III 5 see -āt
ač, aš, až "of"	hača Prth. až	sácā	az	II 2.3.1.2, 3.2.3.1, V 1.5 GEB 1 see also <i>ča</i>
<i>idā</i> "here"	iδa ≈ Prth. ēd	<i>ihá</i> Pali <i>id<sup>h</sup>a</i>		II 2.3.1.1 GEB 164 EWAia I:202
adālat(t) "justice"			<sup>c</sup> idālat	II 1.2.1, 3.3.2.3 NP-Ar. loanword
adab "politeness"			adab	II 3.1.2.2 NP-Ar. loanword
adga, agdar "other"			digar	II 3.3.1.1, 3.3.2.1 NP loanword see also <i>diga(r)</i>
<i>arab</i> "milliard"		árbuda- "mass"		II 2.3.1.1 Ind. (Ur.) loanword
arax "sweat"			<sup>c</sup> araq	II 1.2.2 NP-Ar. loanword
urd "army"			urdū	II 3.1.1.4 NP-Turk. loanword
arzun "millet"			arzan	II 2.2.3.2, 3.3.2.3 = NP

ars "tear"	asru-	áśru-	ars	II 2.1.3.2, 3.1.2.1fn. GEB 431 EAL 6 = NP
(h)ar(r)ag "saw"			arra	II 2.4.1.2 GEB 6 = NP
urmāg "date"			MP, NP xormā	II 2.1.1.1, 2.1.3.3, 2.4.1 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:265 = NP see also <i>hurmāg</i>
armān "longing"			ārmān	II 3.1.2.2 = NP
izbōtk "lovage, ajowan (a plant)"				II 3.1.2.1 MORGENSTIERNE 1937:347, 1974a:278 see also <i>bōd</i>
iz(z)at "honour"			<sup>c</sup> izzat	II 1.2.1 NP-Ar. loanword
uzr "excuse"			<sup>c</sup> u <u>z</u> r	II 1.2.1 NP-Ar. loanword
az(z)iyat "offence"			aziyat "molesting"	II 3.3.1.5 NP-Ar. loanword
<i>užnāg</i> "bathing"	√snā Prth. <i>snāž</i> - "swim"	√snā	ušnān "washing herb"	II 2.1.1.1, 3.1.1.3 BAILEY 1979:466b
asp, aps "horse"	OP asa-°	áśva-	asb	II 2.2.2.3, 2.3.1.2fn., 2.4.1.4, 3.1.2.2.2, 3.2.2.1 GEB 4 NP loanword
ispar "shield"	Prth. ispar		MP (i)spar NP sipar	II 2.3.4 HORN 1893:155 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:73 EWAia II:202
ispulk "spleen"	spərəzan-	plīhán-	MP spul NP supurz	III 1 HORN 1893:155 BAILEY 1979:415b
<i>ispēt</i> "white"				II 2.3.4 see <i>spēt</i>

<i>ispīṭ</i> "speed"				II 3.3.1.4 Europ. (Engl.) loanword
istār, istāl "star"	star- Prth. astār(ag)	stár-	MP istārag NP sitāra	II 2.1.3.2, 2.3.4, 2.4.2, 3.2.1.2 GEIGER 1891:405
(h)astal, istil "mule"		aśvatará-	astar	II 2.1.3.2, 2.2.2.3fn., 2.4.1.4 GEIGER 1891:401 HORN 1893:21 EAL 11 Kurd. loanword?
asr, asur "afternoon (prayer)"			<sup>c</sup> aṣr	II 3.1.2.4 NP-Ar. loanword
iš- (dem.pron.) "this"				V 1.4 see also $\bar{e}\check{s}$
-iš (pron.suff. 3sg.,2pl.)			-iš	II V 1.4 see also $-\bar{e}$ , $-\bar{t}$
<i>išārā</i> "sign"			išāra	II 3.1.4.3 NP-Ar. loanword
išt "brick"	ištiia-	íṣṭakā-	xišt	II 2.2.2.6, 2.3.1.2, 3.1.1 GEB 168 = NP see also <i>hišt</i>
<i>ištāp</i> "hurry"	Prth. awištābišn "oppression"		šitāb	II 2.3.4, 3.2.1.2, 3.3.1.4 GEIGER 1891:405 KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:217 <sup>88</sup> NP loanword
uštir "camel"	uštra-		šutur	II 2.4.1.4, 3.1.2.3.1, 3.1.2.3.4 GEB 161 Kurd. loanword?
ašrapī (a certain coin)			ašrafī	II 3.3.1.1 NP(-Ar.) loanword
išk "this side" iškā "here"				II 3.1.1.2 BUDDRUSS 1974:28ff. see also āšk, ēšk, kaš
uškumag "belly"			šikam	II 3.1.2.3.4, 3.3.2.3, III 1 ELFENBEIN 1963:19 NP loanword

uškun- / uškut etc. "hear"	uš- "ear" + √kar			II 2.3.2fn., 2.4.1.2, 3.1.2.3.1, 3.1.2.3.4, 3.2.3.2, III 5.2 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:41
<i>iškand</i> "unfinished"	√sčand	skand <sup>h</sup> á- "shoulder bone"	šikan- / šikast "break"	II 2.3.4 EWAia II:750
-ak (noun suff.)			-a	II 2.1.1.1, 3.1.4.1, V 1.8 see also -ag, -k
-ik(k) (diminutive suff.)			-ak	II 2.1.1.1, 3.1.2.2.1, 3.2.1.1.1, 3.3.1.5, V 1.8 NP loansuffix
-uk (diminutive suffix)				II 2.1.1.1, V 1.8
EBal. aks- / akast <sup>h</sup> - "sleep"				II 3.1.1.2fn. loanword?
EBal. aksarā "generally"				II 3.1.1.2 Ind. (Ur.) loanword
akl, agl, <sup>c</sup> aqqal "intelligence"			<sup>c</sup> aql	II 1.3.1, 3.1.2.4, 3.3.1.2 NP-Ar. loanword see also <i>alg</i>
-ag <sup>1</sup> (noun suff.)	-aka- Prthag		MP -ag, NP -a	II 2.1.1.1, 3.1.4.1, V 1.8 see also -ak, -k
-ag <sup>2</sup> (part.perf.)				II 3.2.2.2fn., V 1.6 see -ag <sup>1</sup>
-ag <sup>3</sup> (inf.suff.)				I 3.3.1fn., II 2.1.1.1, V 1.6 see -ag <sup>1</sup> , -tin
ag(g) <sup>(h)</sup> "price"				II 3.3.1.5fn. Ind. (Si.) loanword
aga(r), agān, āġā "if"			agar	II 3.1.2.2.2, 3.1.3.3, 3.1.4.3, 3.2.1.1 HORN 1893:25 NP loanword
il(l)- / išt "leave, let"			hil- / hišt	II 3.3.1.5, III 5.4 GEB 165 HÜBSCHMANN 1885:110 <sup>5</sup> NP loanword

ulus(s), ulas "people"				II 2.3.1.1, 3.3.1.5, 3.3.2.3 Turk. loanword
alg, alġ "intelligence"			<sup>c</sup> aql	II 3.3.1.1 NP-Ar. loanword see also <i>akl</i>
am(m)ā obl. am(m)ārā gen. am(m)ai "we"	ahma- Prth. <'m'(h)>	asmá-	mā	II 2.2.1.3, 2.3.1.2, V 1.4 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:257 DURKIN-MEISTERERNST p. 138 see also $m\bar{a}$
imām "security"			imām	II 2.3.1.1 NP-Ar. loanword
amzulp "wife's sister's husband"				III 2
ę (cop.3sg.) "is"				II 3.2.1.3, 3.2.2.3, V 1.6 see also <i>int</i>
(-)an (1pl.ending + cop.)				V 1.6 see also $\bar{y}$ , $-\bar{y}$ , $-\bar{o}m$ , $\bar{e}n$ , $-\bar{e}n$
(-)q (3pl.ending + cop.)				II 3.2.2.3, V 1.6 see also (-)ant
(-)un (1sg.past ending + cop.)				V 1.6 see also $(-)\bar{q}$ , $\bar{o}n$ , $-\bar{o}n$
-in (pron.suff. 1pl.)				II 3.2.4.3, V 1.4 see also - <i>q</i> , - <i>ų</i>
-un (pron.suff. 1sg.)				II 3.2.4.3, V 1.4 see also - $\bar{q}$ , - $\bar{\psi}$
(-)ant (3pl.ending + cop.)			-and	II 3.2.3.1, 3.2.4.2, 3.2.4.3, V 1.6 see also (-)q
int (3sg.cop.) "is"				II 3.2.1.3, 3.2.2.3, 3.2.3.3fn., V 1.6 see also <i>ę</i>
anpān "leather sack"			anbān	II 3.1.1.3, 3.2.1.1.1 GEB 3

anṛas "tear"				II 3.2.1.3 Ind. loanword?
angat "yet"				II 2.1.2.1fn., 3.1.2.2 see also <i>ān-gāt</i>
annūn "right now"				II 3.1.3.3, 3.2.1.3, 3.3.1.5 ELFENBEIN 1990/II:108 see also nūn
(h)anīčag "forehead"	a <sup>i</sup> nika-	ánīka-		II 2.3.1.1, III 1 GEB 2 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:40
anču, ančōš "thus"			≈ čūn "how"	П 3.1.2.2
ančēn "such"			≈ či "which"	II 3.1.2.2
<i>ąṛas</i> "tear"				II 3.2.2.3 Ind. (Ur.?) loanword
angul "finger"	°аŋura-	aṅgúri-		III 1 BARTHOLOMAE 1904:1682 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:40
an-ga(t) "yet"			angah	II 2.1.2.1fn., 3.1.2.2 EWAia I:483f. see also <i>āngāt</i>
unīš "19"				III 4 Ind. (Ur.) loanword
suffixes with $-\bar{o}$ , $-\bar{u}$ see under $w$				
$\bar{o}d(\bar{a})$ "there"	аииаδа Prth. ōδ			II 2.1.3.3, 3.1.2.3.2 GEB 401
auzār "tool"			afzār	II 3.3.1.6 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:16 KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:214 NP loanword see also <i>zōr</i>
<i>ōšt- ∕ ōštāt</i> "stand"	auua + √stā Prth. awi-št- / awi-štād	$\sqrt{\mathrm{st^h} \overline{\mathrm{a}}}$	ist- / istād	II 2.1.3.2, 2.1.3.3, III 5.1 GEB 402
augān "Afghan, Pashtun"			afġān	II 3.3.1.6 NP loanword

awal, aulī "first" awalā "at first"			awwal "first" awwalan "at first"	II 3.3.2.1 NP-Ar. loanword
aulād, alwād "offspring, child"			aulād	II 3.3.1.1, III 2 NP-Ar. loanword
<i>ōmān</i> "desire"	aoman- "helping"	omán- "help"		II 2.3.3, 3.1.2.2
ōmēt, ummēd, umēt "hope"			ōmēd	II 3.3.1.4, 3.3.1.5 GEIGER 1891:462 NP loanword
$ar{\varrho}$ (cop.1.sg.) "am"				II 3.1.3.3, V 1.6 see also $\bar{q}$
ų̄ (cop.1.pl.) "(we) are"				V 1.6 see also (-)an, ēn
ahd, ahad "time; promise"			<sup>c</sup> ahd	II 3.1.2.4, 3.2.3.3 NP-Ar. loanword
ahwāl "news"			aḥwāl	II 3.2.3.3 NP-Ar. loanword
suffixes with $-\bar{e}$ , $-\bar{\iota}$ see under $y$				
$ar{e}$ (dem.pron.) "this"	≈ ēd "this"		≈ īn	II 3.1.1.2, 3.1.2.3.2, 3.2.2.3, V 1.4 GEB 170 see also $\bar{e}\check{s}$
‡ī (dem.pron.) "this"			īn	II 3.1.2.3.2 = NP see also $\bar{e}$
<i>ai</i> , ē (cop.2sg.) "(you) are (sg.)"				II 3.2.1.3, 3.2.3.1, V 1.6
ē (cop.2pl.) "(you) are (pl.)"				V 1.6 see also (-)it
aib "fault, spot, bolt"			<sup>c</sup> aib	II 1.2.1, 3.2.1.1, 3.3.1.6 NP-Ar. loanword
aij̃zī "humility"			<i>ʿajz, ʿājizī</i> "weakness"	II 3.3.2.3 NP-Ar. loanword
aid, īd "holiday"			<sup>c</sup> aid	II 3.3.2.2 NP-Ar. loanword

П	1	1	
<i>ēr</i> "down(wards)"	aδairi "under"	z-ēr	II 3.1.2.3.2 GEB 169 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:556 NP loanword
<i>īrād, airād</i> "objection"		īrād	II 3.3.2.3 NP-Ar. loanword
ēš (dem.pron.) "this"			V 1.4 see also $\bar{e}$ , $i\check{s}$ -
aiš "luxury"		<sup>c</sup> aiš	II 3.1.2.4, 3.1.3.3 NP-Ar. loanword
ēšk "this side" ēškā "here"			II 3.1.1.2 BUDDRUSS 1974:28ff. see $\bar{e}$ and $ka\bar{s}$ see also $\bar{a}\bar{s}k$ , $i\bar{s}k$
ēmin, ēman "safe, secure"		aiman	II 3.3.2.1 NP-Ar. loanword (via Ur.) see also <i>ēmanī</i>
ēmanī, aimnī "security, safety"			II 3.3.2.1 NP-Ar. loanword (via Ur.) see also <i>ēmin</i>
ēn (cop.1pl.)			II 3.2.4.3, V 1.6 see also <i>an</i> , $\bar{\psi}$
ēwak "alone"	*aēuuaka- Prth. <i>yak</i>	yak	II 2.1.1.1, 2.1.3.3, 2.3.3, 3.3.1.5 GEB 171
b(i)- (pref. subj./ipr.)		bi-	V 1.6
bābā "son, child, old man"			III 2 = NP
bābīl(l) "bobbin"			II 3.1.1.1fn. Europ. (Engl.) loanword
bābū (address term for grandfathers)			III 2fn. see <i>bābā</i>
<i>bād</i> "afterwards"		ba <sup>c</sup> d	II 1.2.1 NP-Ar. loanword

<i>bār</i> "load"		b <sup>h</sup> ārá-	bār	II 3.2.3.3fn., 3.3.1.4 GEB 33 = NP see <i>bar</i> -
bār "time (x times)"	√var "wish"	vấra-	bār	II 3.2.3.3fn. GEB 33 NP loanword
<i>bāsk</i> "arm"	bāzu-	bāhú-	bāzū	II 2.1.1.1, 2.4.3.2, III 1 GEB 35
bānz "falcon"			bāz	II 3.1.3.3 GEB 30 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:22 GREPPIN 1977:7 NP-Ar. loanword
<i>bānuk</i> "lady"	°paϑnī-	pátnī-	MP bānūg NP bānū	II 3.1.4.2, III 2fn. GEB 32 GIPPERT 1993/I:35ff. NP loanword
<i>bānklēnk</i> "broad bean"			bāqilā'	II 3.1.3.3 GEIGER 1891:446 NP-Ar. loanword
bāng "cry"			bāng	II 3.2.1.3 NP loanword see gwānk
bāid, bāyad "(it is) necessary"			bāyad	II 3.3.1.4, 3.3.2.1 ELFENBEIN 1963:22 NP loanword
bij, bīj "seed"		bī́ja-	bīj	II 3.1.2.2fn. GEB 37
bač(č), bačik(k) "son"			bač(č)a	II 2.1.1.1, 2.1.3.3, 3.2.1.1, 3.3.1.5, III 2 GEIGER 1891:445 NP loanword see also <i>gwask</i>
bučk "mane"				II 2.1.1.1, 2.3.2 see <i>bušk</i>
baxšīš (sic) "present"			baxšiš	II 3.1.2.2.2 NP loanword (via Ur./Si.) see also <i>bašk</i> -

<i>bad</i> "bad"			NP bad, MP wad	I 1.3 GEIGER 1891:445 HORN 1893:44 NP loanword
badal "exchange"			badal	II 3.3.2.1, III 5.6 NP-Ar. loanword
badl- / badlit "change"				II 3.3.2.1, III 5.6 from badal
badan "body"			badan	III 1 NP-Ar. loanword
bad(d) "back; load"				III 1 ROSSI 1979:91 Br. loanword?
bud(d)- / bud(d)it "sink"				II 3.3.1.5, III 5.6 Ind. (Si./Lhd.) loanword
bar "time"				II 3.1.2.2, 3.2.3.3fn. see <i>bār</i>
bir "on, upon, back"			bar	II 3.1.2.3, III 2fn. NP loanword
bar(r) "penis"				III 1
bar- / burt "carry"	√bar:  bara- / bṛta-  Prth. bar- / burd	$\sqrt{b^h}$ r: $b^h ara - / b^h rt a$	bar- / burd	II 2.3.2, 3.2.1.1, 3.3.1.4, III 5.3 GEB 29 GEIGER 1891:444 = NP
bur(r)- / bur(r)it "cut"	√bray: brīna-	√bʰrī: <i>bʰrīṇa-</i> "harm"	burr- / burrīd	II 2.2.3.4, III 5.4 GEB 43 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:28 NP loanword
barābar, barāwar "equal"			barābar	II 3.1.2.3.2, 3.2.1.1.1, 3.3.2.1, 3.3.2.3 BAILEY 1979:376b NP loanword see also barōbar
<i>brāt</i> "brother"	brātar- Prth. brād(ar)	b <sup>h</sup> rấtṛ-	barādar	II 2.1.1.2, 3.1.2.4, 3.2.1.1fn., III 2 GEB 38 see also <i>brās</i>

<i>brātō</i> "stepbrother"				III 2 see <i>brāt</i>
barādar "brother"			barādar	II 3.2.4.1fn., III 2 NP loanword see <i>brāt</i>
brās "brother"	obl. <i>brāϑr-</i>	obl. <i>brātr</i> -		II 2.2.1.4, 3.1.2.4, 3.2.1.1fn., 3.2.3.1fn., III 2 BARTHOLOMAE 1885:130, 133
barp "snow"			barf	II 2.1.3.3, 3.3.1.1, 3.3.1.2 GEIGER 1891:446 NP loanword see also <i>gwahr</i>
burz "high"	bərəzant- Prth. burz	bṛhánt-	buland	II 2.2.3.2, 2.3.2, 3.1.1.4 GEIGER 1891:447 see also <i>bustir</i>
barzī "saddle bag"	barəziš- "cushion"		bāla "bag" bāliš "cushion"	II 2.2.3.2, 2.3.2 HORN 1893:39 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:41
b(i)rinj "rice"			MP brinj NP birinj	II 3.3.2.1fn. GEIGER 1891:446 NP/MP loanword
brinj "copper, nickel"			MP brinj NP birinj	II 3.3.2.1fn. GEIGER 1891:446 NP/MP loanword
burwān(k), birwān, barwān "eyebrow"	bruuatbiiam (dat. du.)	$b^h r \hat{u}$ -	MP brūg NP abrū	II 2.1.1.1, 3.1.2.3, 3.1.3.1, 3.2.1.2 GEB 44
barōbar, barēbar "equal"			barābar	II 3.1.2.3.2, 3.3.2.1, 3.3.2.3 NP loanword see also <i>barābar</i>
<i>brēs- / brēst</i> "spin"	uruuaēsa- "turn" Prth. ā-rwis- / ā-rwist	vríś- "finger", vréśī- "whirl (in water)"	rēs- / rišt	II 2.1.2.3, 2.2.3.6, 2.3.3fn., III 5.1 GEB 40 EWAia II:462 see also <i>rēs</i> -
<i>bazgar</i> "farmer"	√varz "work" Prth. par-warz- / par-warzād "care for"		barzgar	II 2.2.3.2 HORN 1893:46 NP loanword

bas(s) "bus"			utubūs	II 3.3.1.5 Europ. (Engl.) loanword
bas(s) "enough"	OP vasiy Prth. was		bas	II 2.1.3.3 GEIGER 1891:446 NP loanword
bustir "higher"				II 2.2.3.2fn., V 1.2 see <i>burz</i>
†busk- / butk "be released"				II 3.1.1.2fn.
bušk, bučk "mane"	barəša- "horse's neck"		buš	II 2.1.1.1, 2.3.2 HORN 1893:50f.
bašk- / baškāt "forgive"	baxša- "bestow" Prth. baxš- / baxt	√b <sup>h</sup> aj "bestow"	baxš-/ baxšīd	II 2.2.1.2, 3.1.1.2, III 5.3, V 1.6 GEB 24 BARTHOLOMAE 1904:924 = NP see also <i>bakš</i> -
EBal. bušk- / buxt <sup>h</sup> a "shoot"				II 3.1.1.2, III 5.1 GEIGER 1891:436 see <i>bōj</i> -
bak(k)āl "shopkeeper, Hindu"			baqqāl "tradesman"	II 3.1.2.2.1 NP-Ar. loanword
bakš- / bakšit "forgive"			baxš- / baxšīd	II 2.2.1.2, 3.1.1.2, III 5.5 GEB 24 NP loanword see bašk-
bag(g) "camel herd"				II 3.3.1.5, 3.3.1.7 ZARUBIN 1930:660 ROSSI 1979:3 Ind. (Si.) loanword
bagal "armpit"			baġal	III 2 NP loanword
bal(l)uk, bal(l)ū, bal(l)ī "grandmother"				II 3.3.1.5, III 2 MORGENSTIERNE 1948:283 Br. loanword
<i>balki</i> "but"			balki	II 3.1.3.3 NP-Ar. loanword

balg "leaf"	<sup>‡</sup> varəka- Prth. <wrgr></wrgr>		barg	II 3.3.1.7 ELFENBEIN 1963:23 NP loanword
bulūr "crystal, glass"	Prth. <bylwr></bylwr>		bulūr	II 3.1.2.3.3fn. Ind. loanword (via NP?)
Bampūr (town in Iran)			Ватрйг	II 3.1.3.2
bun "fundament"	YAv. buna-	buď <sup>h</sup> ná-	bun	III 2fn. GEB 42 = NP
bun "root"			bun	III 2fn. HORN 1893:52 NP loanword see gwan
binā "beginning"			banā' "foundation"	II 3.3.2.3 NP-Ar. loanword
band- / bast "bind"	√band: band- / basta-	√bad <sup>h</sup>	band- / bast	III 5.3 GEB 26 GEIGER 1891:444 = NP
būt, bīt (past stem of bay-"become")	būta- Prth. būd	b <sup>h</sup> ūtá-	būd	II 2.1.1.1, 2.3.1.3, 3.1.2.3.1, 3.1.4.3, 3.2.1.1, 3.2.2.1fn., 3.2.2.3, III 5.1, V 1.6 GEB 45
bōj- / bōtk etc. "open"	√baog "open, set free" Prth. bōž- / bōxt "save"		MP bōz- / bōxt	II 2.1.2.2, 3.1.2.1, 3.2.1.1.1, 3.2.2.1, 3.2.3.1fn., III 5.1 GEB 48 LIV 85
bōd(išt) "smell, perfume"	√baod "feel" Prth. <i>bōôestān</i> "garden"	√bod <sup>h</sup> "perceive"	bōy "smell"	II 3.1.2.1
<i>bōr</i> "brown (horse)"			bōr	III 3 GEB 51 GEIGER 1891:444 MAYRHOFER 1960:146 <sup>74</sup> , 1973:144 SIMS-WILLIAMS 1992:47 = NP
<i>b<sup>h</sup>ūrā</i> "brown"				III 3 Ind. (Ur.) loanword

bōg "joint"		b <sup>h</sup> ogá- "bend, curve"		II 2.1.1.2, III 1 GEB 47 EWAia II:275
būl(l) "nose ring"				II 3.1.2.3 Ind. loanword
<i>bōlak(k)</i> "tribe"				II 3.1.2.2.1 DAMES 1904:4 Turk. loanword
būnduk "pile of bedding etc."				II 3.1.3.3
<i>bahā</i> "price"		vasná-	bahā	II 2.1.3.3, 3.2.3.1 GEIGER 1891:446 HORN 1893:55 NP loanword
<i>bahār</i> "spring"	OP °vāhara- (name of a month)	vāsará- "shining in the morning"	bahār	II 2.1.3.3 HORN 1893:56 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:57 EWAia II:532f.
bahr "share, destiny"	baxtar- "giver of portions"	√b <sup>h</sup> aj "give a share"	bahr	II 3.1.2.4, 3.2.3.3 GEIGER 1891:446 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:33 NP loanword
<i>bahišt</i> "paradise"	Prth. wahišt		bihišt	II 2.1.3.3 NP loanword
bē "without"			bē	I 1.3 GEIGER 1891:446 HORN 1893:56 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:33 NP loanword
bay- (/ būt) "become"	bauua- Prth. buw-	b <sup>h</sup> áva-	buw- / būd	II 2.1.1.2, 3.2.1.3, 3.3.1.5, III 5.1 GEB 45
<i>bēr</i> "revenge"				II 3.3.1.7 ELFENBEIN 1963:24 Ind. loanword
bairak(k) "flag"			bairaq	II 3.3.1.5 NP-Turk. loanword
<i>bīst</i> "20"			bīst	II 2.1.3.3, III 4 NP loanword see also <i>gīst</i>

П	1			
<i>bēnag</i> "honey"			(angubīn)	II 2.3.3, 3.1.2.3fn. GEB 36 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:41
pātiyā, fātihā "memorial prayer"			fātiḥa	II 2.3.4, 3.1.4.3 NP-Ar. loanword
<i>pāṭpōs</i> "passport"				II 3.3.1.1 FARRELL (in print) Europ. (Engl.) loanword
pāč, pač "open"	apąš Prth. abāž	ápāc-	bāz	II 2.3.1.1, 3.1.2.2 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:22
<i>pāčin</i> "goat"			pāzan	II 2.2.2.4fn., 3.1.2.3 GEB 290 GERSHEVITCH 1971:268f. BAILEY 1979:139a
pād "foot"	pāδa- Prth. pāδ	pấda-	pāy	II 2.1.1.2, 3.2.2.1, 3.3.1.4, III 1 GEB 291
pādšāh, bādšāh "king"			pādišāh	II 3.3.1.5 NP loanword
pārī, pārīg "last (year)"	pa <sup>u</sup> ruua- "earlier one"	pū́rva- "front one"	pār-sāl	II 2.1.1.1, 2.1.3.3, 3.2.3.3 GEB 293 GEIGER 1891:444 = NP
<i>pāzwār</i> "footwear"				II 3.2.1.1.1 NP loanword?
<i>pāk</i> "pure"	Prth. pawāg	pāvaká-	pāk	II 2.1.3.3 KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:212 = NP
pānzdah "15"			pānzdah	II 3.1.3.3, III 4 NP loanword see dah
pāida(g), fāida, -ā "advantage"			fā'ida	II 1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 2.4.3.2, 3.1.4.1, 3.1.4.2 NP-Ar. loanword
pupī "aunt (father's sister)"				III 2 MORGENSTIERNE 1948:284 Ind. (Si./Ur.) loanword

pit "father"	pitar- Prth. pid(ar)	pitŕ-	pidar-	II 2.1.1.1, 2.3.1.2, 3.2.1.1fn., 3.2.4.1fn., 3.3.1.4, III 2 GEB 296 ELFENBEIN 1985:234 see also <i>pis</i>
pitārk "stepfather"				III 2 see pit
pat <sup>h</sup> ān "Pashtun"				II 3.1.2.2.1 loanword
patk "poplar tree, willow"				II 3.2.2.1 Morgenstierne 1937:348, 1948:290 Rossi 1979:39
patan "wide"	paðana-		pahn	II 2.1.2.1 GEB 289 BAILEY 1979:259b KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:210
pitō, pitū "stepfather"				II 3.1.2.3, III 2 see <i>pit</i>
puṭ "hair, feather"				III 1 EMENEAU/BURROW 1972 ROSSI 1979:109
puṭbāl, fuṭbāl "football"				II 1.2.4 Europ. (Engl. via Ur.) loanword
puj(j)- / puj(j)it "reach"				II 3.3.1.5, III 5.6 GILBERTSON 1925:35 Ind. (Ur.?) loanword
pajar, fajar "morning (prayer)"			fajr	II 3.1.2.4 NP-Ar. loanword
pajī, pajyā "with"				II 3.2.1.1fn., 3.3.1.5 GEB 280
pač "open"				II 2.3.1.1 GEB 275 see <i>pāč</i>
pač- / patk etc. "cook"	√pač: <i>pača</i> -	√pac	paz- / puxt	II 2.1.1.1, 2.3.1.2, 3.2.1.1, 3.2.2.1, 3.2.3.1, III 5.1 GEB 276

pad "trace"	раба-	padá-	pai	V 1.5 GEB 277
padā (postp.) "behind"				V 1.5 obl. of pad
<i>pidar</i> "father"			pidar	II 3.2.2.1 NP loanword see <i>pit</i> , <i>pis</i>
pad(d)ar "evident"				II 3.3.1.5 Ind. (Si.) loanword
piḍ(ḍ) "belly"				III 1 EMENEAU/BURROW 1961 ROSSI 1979:107 Br. loanword?
par "for"	upa <sup>i</sup> ri° Prth. abar	upari°	(a)bar	II 2.3.1.1 GEB 283 see also <i>pa</i>
pir "on, upon"	para°	pára		II 3.1.2.3 GEB 294
pur(r) "ashes"				III 3
<i>prāh</i> "wide"	Prth. <fr'x></fr'x>		MP <pl'hw> frāx NP farāx</pl'hw>	II 2.2.1.4, 3.3.2.1 GEB 303 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:84 = MP
parḍāḍā "great-grandfather"				III 2 Ind. (Si./Ur.) loanword see dādā
purs- / pursit "ask"	√fras: pərəsa- Prth. purs- / pursād	√pracc <sup>h</sup> :  pṛcc <sup>h</sup> á-	purs- / pursīd	II 2.3.2, 3.3.1.4, III 5.3 GEIGER 1891:458 = NP
pruš- / prušt "break (itr.)"				II 2.3.1.1, 3.1.2.1, 3.2.1.1fn., III 5.1 GEB 305 EMMERICK 1968:106 BAILEY 1979:234a, 298b see also $pr\bar{o}\check{s}$ -
prinč- / pritk "squeeze"				II 2.3.1.1fn., 3.1.2.1, III 5.1 GEIGER 1891:401

П				
prōš- / prōšt "break (tr.)"				II 2.3.1.1fn., 3.1.2.1, III 5.1 see <i>pruš</i> -
parērī "day before yesterday"			parēr	II 2.1.3.4 GEB 285 GERSHEVITCH 1964:81 = NP
pizādag, pēzādag "stepson"				III 2 GEB 297 see also <i>pit</i>
pas "sheep, goat"	pasu- Prth. pas	paśú-	MP pah	II 2.1.2.3, 2.3.1.2 GEB 286
pis(s) "father"	obl. <i>piϑr-</i>	obl. pitr-		II 2.2.1.4, 3.1.1.1, 3.2.1.1fn., 3.2.3.1, III 2 BARTHOLOMAE 1885:130, 133 see also <i>pit</i>
pus(s)ag "son"	puϑra- Prth. puhr	putrá-	MP pus NP pisar	II 2.2.1.4, III 2 GEB 304
pasl "harvest, season"			faṣl	II 3.2.1.1 NP-Ar. loanword
pis(s)ō, pis(s)ū "stepfather"				II 3.1.2.3, III 2 see <i>pis</i>
paš, pašt "back, behind"	pasča Prth. paš	paścấ	pas	II 2.2.2.4, 3.2.2.1fn. GEB 287 MORGENSTIERNE 1948:290
pušt "back"	paršta- Prth. pušt	pṛṣṭʰá-	pušt	II 2.2.2.4, 2.2.2.6, 2.3.2, 3.3.1.4 GEIGER 1891:401 = NP
pašm, pažm, bažm "wool"			pašm	II 3.1.1.3, 3.1.2.4, 3.3.1.6 NP loanword
piš(š)ī, puš(š)ī "cat"			pušak	II 2.1.1.1fn., 3.1.2.2.1, 3.1.2.3, 3.1.3.2 = NP see also $p\bar{u}\check{s}(\check{s})\bar{\iota}$
pak(k)ā "ripe, ready"				II 3.1.1.1fn., 3.2.1.1fn. = Ur. see also <i>pač</i> -

pak(k)ār, pakar "necessary"			ba-kār	II 2.3.1.1, 3.1.2.2.1 GEB 281 = Psht.
pak(k)ār- / pak(k)ārit "be useful"	≈ Prth. <i>pad-kār</i> - "contend, strive"			II 2.3.1.1fn. from $pak(k)\bar{a}r$
pikr, fikr, pigr "thought"			fikr	II 3.1.2.2.2, 3.3.1.2 NP-Ar. loanword
pakīr "beggar, ascetic"			faqīr	II 1.2.2, 3.2.1.1 NP-Ar. loanword
pul(l) "flower"				II 3.3.1.5 Ind. (Si.) loanword
palk "time, moment"			falak "circuit"	II 3.3.2.1 DAMES 1891:19 NP-Ar. loanword
palamtī "penalty (football)"				II 3.3.1.1 FARRELL (in print) Europ. (Engl.) loanword
pulūs "police"				II 3.1.2.3 FARRELL (in print) Europ. (Engl.) loanword
<i>p</i> <sup>h</sup> imblī "eyelash"				III 1 GILBERTSON 1925/I:234f. Ind. (Si.) loanword
pan(n) "leaf"	parəna- Prth. <png></png>	parṇá- "leaf, feather"	par	II 2.2.3.4 GEIGER 1891:401 MORGENSTIERNE 1927:57 = Si.
panjāh "50"	paṇčāsat-	pañcāśát-	panjāh	III 4 NP loanword
panjag "hand, claws"			panja	III 1 NP loanword see <i>panč</i>
panč "5"	paṇča	райса	panj	III 4 NP loanword
pinsil, pilsin "pencil"				II 3.3.1.1 Europ. (Engl.) loanword
<i>pūrī</i> "grey"				III 3

pōz, pōnz "nose"			pōz	II 3.1.2.3, 3.1.3.3, III 1 GEB 310 GEIGER 1891:444 BAILEY 1979:250b = NP
<i>pōst</i> "skin"	OP pavastā- "parchment"			III 1 GEIGER 1891:458 BRANDENSTEIN/ MAYRHOFER 1964:140 = NP
<i>pūš(š)ī</i> , <i>pīš(š)ī</i> "cat"			pōšak	II 3.1.2.2.1, 3.1.2.3, 3.1.3.2, 3.1.3.3 GEB 307 see also $pi\check{s}(\check{s})\bar{\iota}$
pōšī "day before yesterday"				II 2.3.1.1, 3.1.3.3 GEB 309 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:49 GERSHEVITCH 1964:84 EWAia I:236
EBal. pōgōx "throat"				III 1
pōn "rotten (of fruit)"				II 3.1.3.2 Morgenstierne 1948:290
pūnz, pīnz "heel"				II 2.2.2.1fn., 3.1.2.3fn., 3.1.2.3.1, 3.1.3.3, 3.2.2.3, III 1 GEB 306 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:49
pa "for"	upa°	upa°		II 2.3.1.1 GEB 274 see also <i>par</i>
<i>puhl, pōl</i> "bridge"	pərəθβ- "wide" Prth. <pwrt></pwrt>		MP puhl NP pul	II 2.2.3.1, 2.3.2, 3.1.2.4, 3.1.3.2 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:195, 207
pahlū(g) "ribs"	parəsu-	párśu-	MP pahlūg NP pahlū "side"	II 2.1.1.1, 3.1.2.3, 3.1.4.1, 3.1.4.2, 3.2.3.3 GEB 279 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:44 NP/MP loanword
<i>pahlawān</i> "bard"	OP <i>Parðava</i> - "Parthia"		pahlawān "hero"	II 2.2.3.1 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:208 = NP

pahnād, pahnāt, pānād "side, width"				II 3.2.3.3 NP loanword see also <i>patan</i>
pīr "old (persons)"	paouiriia- "first"	pūrvyá- "first"	pīr	II 3.1.2.2fn., III 2+fn. BARTHOLOMAE 1907:112 NP loanword
<i>pīruk</i> "grandfather"				II 2.1.1.1, 3.1.2.2fn., III 2 GEB 300 from <i>pīr</i>
<i>pīrō</i> "granduncle"				III 2fn. see <i>pīr</i> , <i>pīruk</i>
<i>pērī, pairī</i> "day before yesterday"				II 2.1.3.4 see also <i>parērī</i>
pēš "before"	OP <i>paišiyā</i> Prth. <i>pēš</i>		pēš	II 2.3.1.1fn., 3.1.1.3fn. GEB 302 KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:214 <sup>82</sup> = NP
<i>pēšānī</i> "forehead"			pēšānī	II 2.3.1.1, III 1 EAL 120 NP loanword
pēšdah, pēždah "pistol"				II 3.1.1.3fn.
pīg "fat"	pīuuah- Prth. <frbyw> "fat, stout"</frbyw>	pī́vas-	pīh; farbťh adj.	II 2.1.1.1, 2.1.3.3, 2.3.1.3 GEB 298
pīm "wool"				II 3.3.1.2fn.
<i>pīmāz</i> "onion"			piyāz	II 3.2.1.1.2 GEB 299 NP or Kurd. loanword
-t (3sg.)				II 2.1.2.2fn., 2.1.2.3fn., 2.1.3.4, 3.2.2.3, V 1.6 see also $-\bar{\iota}(t)$
-t (past stem suff.)			-t	III 5, V 1.6 see also -it, -āt

tā, tān "until"			tā; tā-ān	II 3.1.3.3fn. HORN 1893:81 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:46 NP loanword
tāp- / tāpt "heat"	<i>tāpa-</i> Prth. <i>tāb- / tābād</i> "shine"	√tap	tāb- / tāft	III 5.1 GEB 385
<i>tātī</i> "aunt"				III 2 Br. loanword?
<i>tārīp</i> "praise"			ta <sup>c</sup> rīf	II 1.2.1 NP-Ar. loanword
tām "taste"			<u>t</u> a <sup>c</sup> m	II 1.2.1 NP-Ar. loanword
<i>tāna</i> "stable"	stāna-	st <sup>h</sup> ấna- "position"	-stān "place of"	II 2.2.4.1 BARTHOLOMAE 1863:263 Indian loanword
<i>tabīb</i> "physician"			ṭabīb	II 3.3.1.6 NP-Ar. loanword
tač- / tatk etc. "run"	√tak: <i>tača</i> - Prth. <i>taž</i> - / ° <i>ðaxt</i>	√tak "hurry"	tāz- "hurry" (caus.)	II 2.1.1.1, 3.2.1.1, 3.2.2.1, 3.2.3.1, III 5.1 GEB 374
EBal. <i>tar- / taraϑ-</i> "swim"				II 2.3.2fn., III 5.5 DAMES 1891:22 Ind. (Si.) loanword see also <i>tar(r)</i> -
tar(r)- / tar(r)it "turn"	√tar "cross, overcome" Prth. wi-dar- / wi-dar(ā)d "pass", widār- / widārād "let pass", <trw-></trw->	√t <u>r</u>	gu-zar- / gu- zard, gu-zār- / gu- zārd	II 2.3.2, 3.1.2.3fn., 3.3.1.5fn., III 5.5 GEB 381 EWAia I:629ff. = Ur. see also <i>tar</i> -
tir(r) "fart"				II 2.2.3.4fn.
-tir (comparative suff.)	-tara-	-tara-	-tar	II 3.1.2.3, V 1.2
tarā "you (sg.)" (obl.)			tu-rā	II 3.2.3.2 see tau

turpš, trupš, trušp "sour"	Prth. <tryfs></tryfs>		turš	II 2.2.4.3, 2.3.2, 3.1.1.2, 3.1.2.4, 3.1.3.1 GEB 395 BAILEY 1979:130a
turs, trus "fear"	Prth. tars		tars	II 2.3.2, 3.1.3.1, III 5.2 GEB 393, 394 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:47 see also <i>turs</i> -
turs- / tursit "fear"	√ðrah: <i>tərəsa</i> - Prth. <i>tirs-</i> / <i>tirsād</i> , <tyšt-></tyšt->	√tras	tars- / tarsīd	II 2.3.2, 3.1.3.1, III 5.2 GEB 393, 394 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:47 see also <i>turs</i>
trū, trī "aunt"	tūiriia- "father's brother"	pitrvyà- "father's brother"		II 2.2.4.1, 2.3.2fn., 3.1.2.3, 3.2.2.2, III 2 BARTHOLOMAE 1893:263
tarūn "oven"			tanūr	II 3.3.1.1 NP loanword see <i>tanūr</i>
-tirēn (superlative suff.)				V 1.2 see -tir
tus- / tust "suffocate"	√taoš Prth. <i>tusīg</i> "empty"	<i>tucc<sup>h</sup>yá-</i> "empty"	tuhī "empty"	II 2.1.2.3, III 5.1 GEB 397 EWAia I:650 see also <i>tōs</i> -
tuman, tumun "tribe"			tōmān, tumān	II 3.1.2.2.1, 3.3.2.3 NP-Turk. loanword (via Ur.)
tama "desire"			ṭama <sup>c</sup>	II 1.2.1 NP-Ar. loanword see also <i>tamā</i> <sup>c</sup>
-tin (inf.suff.)			-tan	I 3.3.1fn., V 1.6
tun(n) "thirst" tun(n)ag, tun(n)īg "thirsty"	taršna-	tŕṣna-	tiš tišna	II 2.2.2.1, 2.2.3.3, 2.2.3.4, 2.3.2, 2.4.3.2, 3.1.3.2, 3.1.4.1, 3.3.1.5 GEB 396
tanak "thin"		tanú-	tanuk	II 3.2.1.2fn. GEB 377 BAILEY 1979:121b
tank "narrow"			tang	II 3.2.2.3 GEB 378

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tang "narrow"			tang	II 3.2.2.3 GEB 378 NP loanword
tanūr "oven"	tanura-		tanūr	II 3.3.1.1 BARTHOLOMAE 1904:638 NP loanword
tau obl. $t(a)r\bar{a}$ gen. tai, $t\bar{\iota}$ "you (sg.)"	tuuōm Prth. obl. tō	tvám	tu	II 2.1.3.3, 3.2.1.1, 3.2.2.1, 3.2.3.2, V 1.4 GEIGER 1891:413 SUNDERMANN 1989a:131
tōp, tōp "canon"			tōp "canon"	II 3.3.1.7 NP-Turk. loanword
tūpak(k), tōpak "gun"			tufang "gun"	II 3.1.3.3fn., 3.2.1.2 GEIGER 1891:462 NP-Turk. loanword see also <i>tōp</i>
<i>tōr-</i> "weigh"				II 3.3.1.7fn., III 5.6 Ind. (Si.) loanword see also <i>tōl</i> -
<i>tōs- / tōst</i> "extinguish"	taoš-			II 2.1.2.3, III 5.1 GEB 400 EWAia I:650 see also <i>tus</i> -
<i>tōl</i> "weighing, scales"				II 3.3.1.7fn. Ind. (Ur.) loanword see also <i>tōr</i> , <i>tōl</i> -
tōm, tuhm "seed"	taoxman- Prth. tōxm	tókman-	tuxm	II 2.2.1.3 GEB 399
tah, tih "interior, in"			tah "bottom"	II 3.2.4.1, 3.2.4.2
tahl, tahal, tāl "bitter"	Prth. taxl		MP taxl, tahr NP talx	II 2.2.1.4, 3.1.2.4, 3.2.3.3 KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:206 <sup>51</sup>
tīrmāh "autumn"	tištriia- "Sirius"	tiṣyà-	tīr-māh	II 3.2.3.1 NP loanword
_tikat(t) "ticket"				II 1.2.4, 3.3.1.5, 3.3.1.7 FARRELL (in print) Europ. (Engl.) loanword

<i>tōl- / tōla</i> ϑ- "weigh"				II 3.3.1.7fn., III 5.6 Ind. (Ur.) loanword see also <i>tōr</i> -, <i>tōl</i>
<i>tēbal</i> "table"				II 2.1.2.3fn. Europ. (Engl.) loanword
<i>tēṭ, ṭē̞ṭ</i> "tight, good"				II 3.1.3.3 FARRELL (in print) Europ. (Engl.) loanword
<i>jā(y)-, jāh- / jāyit,</i> <i>jāhit</i> "chew"			jaw-	II 2.1.3.3, 2.1.3.4fn., III 5.1 GEB 176 LIV 168
<i>jātūg</i> "sorcerer"	yātu-	yātú- "magic"	ўādū	II 2.1.1.1, 2.1.3.4, 2.3.1.3 HORN 1893:92 MORGENSTIERNE 1937:348
<i>jāsūs</i> "spy"			<i>jāsūs</i>	II 3.1.3.3 NP-Ar. loanword
<i>jān</i> "life, body, beloved"	Prth. gyān		jān	II 2.2.3.7, III 1 GEIGER 1891:452 KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:194 = NP
<i>jānwar, janāwar</i> "animal"			jānwar	II 2.1.3.3fn., 2.2.3.7fn., 3.3.2.2 NP loanword see <i>jān</i>
<i>jibar</i> "force"			jabr	II 3.1.2.3.1, 3.1.2.4 NP-Ar. loanword
<i>jitā</i> "separate"	yūta- Prth. yud	√yu: <i>yutá-</i>	judā	II 2.1.3.4, 3.1.2.3 HORN 1893:94 EWAia II:403
jut(t) "old she-camel"				II 3.3.1.5 Ind. loanword?
jadgāl, jadgāl, jagdāl "Jatt"				II 3.1.2.2.1, 3.3.1.1, 3.3.1.2 Ind. loanword
<i>jur(r)āb</i> "stocking"			jūrāb	II 3.1.3.1, 3.3.1.5fn. NP-Ar. loanword

<i>juz(z)- / juz(z)it</i> "move"	yaoz- Prth. yōz- / yušt		jōy-/just	II 2.1.3.4, 3.1.3.1, III 5.1 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:560 BAILEY 1979:20A
<i>jug</i> "yoke"	≈ yuxta- "team of cattle"			II 2.1.3.4 GEB 180 GEIGER 1891:444 = NP see also <i>jōġ</i>
<i>jagar</i> "liver"	yākarə	yákṛt-	jigar	II 2.1.3.4fn., 2.3.1.2fn., 3.2.1.2, III 1 GEB 173 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:558 NP loanword
<i>jan</i> "woman, wife"	<i>ja<sup>i</sup>ni-</i> Prth. <i>žan</i>	jáni-	zan	II 2.1.2.2, 3.2.3.1 GEB 174
<i>jan- / jat</i> "strike"	$\sqrt{\text{jan}}$ / $\sqrt{\text{jata}}$ Prth. $z$ an- / $^{\circ}$ zad	√han / <i>hatá</i> -	zan- / zad	II 2.1.2.2, 3.1.4.3, 3.2.3.3fn., III 5.1 GEB 175
<i>jantar, jintir</i> "millstone"		yantrá-	jandar	II 2.1.3.4, 3.1.2.3.1, 3.2.1.3 GEIGER 1891:451 ELFENBEIN 1990/II:73 = Ur.
<i>jind</i> "self; body"				III 1 GILBERTSON 1925/I:77 Si./Lhd. loanword?
<i>janik(k), jinik(k)</i> "girl, daughter"				II 2.1.1.1, 3.1.2.3, 3.2.1.2, 3.3.1.5, III 2 diminutive of <i>jan</i>
<i>jang</i> "battle, war"			jang	II 3.2.2.3 GEIGER 1891:451 NP loanword
<i>jangal</i> "forest"		<i>jangala-</i> "desert"	jangal	II 3.2.2.3 GEIGER 1891:451 LOKOTSCH 1927:74 Ind. (via NP?) loanword
<i>janēn, jinēn</i> "wife"				III 2 see j̃an
<i>jąglī</i> "wild"				II 3.2.2.3 Ind. (Ur.) loanword see <i>jangal</i>

<i>jau</i> "barley"	yauua- Prth. <yw'rd'w></yw'rd'w>	yáva-	ўаи	II 2.1.3.3, 2.1.3.4, 3.3.1.4 GEB 179 GEIGER 1891:444 = NP
j̄ō(h), j̄ū "river"	OP yauviyā- "canal"	yavyá- "stream"	j̄ο̄(y)	II 2.1.3.3, 2.4.1.2, 3.1.2.1fn., 3.1.2.3, 3.1.3.4fn. HORN 1893:96 EWAia II:405 = NP
<i>jwān</i> "young, good"	yuuan- Prth. yuwān	yúvan-	jawān	II 2.1.3.4, 3.1.2.1fn., 3.1.3.4, 3.3.1.4 GEIGER 1891:451 = NP
<i>jōd</i> "man"	°iiao∂a- "warrior"	<i>yod<sup>h</sup>á-</i> "warrior"		II 2.1.3.4 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:560 EWAia II:418f. = Ur.
j̄ο̄ <u>r</u> "well, healthy; constructed"				III 1 Ind. (Ur.) loanword
jūṛ "intestines, colon"				III 1 from jōṛ?
EBal. <i>jōġ</i> "yoke"		yóga-		II 2.1.3.4fn. GEB 180 = Ur. see also <i>jug</i>
jūn "June (month)"				II 3.1.3.3 FARRELL (in print) Europ. (Engl.) loanword
<i>jōhān</i> "big jar"				II 2.1.3.3fn. MORGENSTIERNE 1937:347 see also <i>jau</i>
jih- / jist "flee"			jah- / jast	II 2.1.2.5fn., III 5.3 GEIGER 1891:452 = NP
<i>jahl</i> "low"	<i>jafra-</i> Prth. <i>žafr</i>	gab <sup>h</sup> īrá-	žarf	II 2.1.3.2, 2.2.1.4 GEB 178 EWAia I:464
<i>juhl</i> "deep"	gufra-		MP zofr	II 2.2.1.4 BARTHOLOMAE 1904:525 EWAia I:464

<sup>‡</sup> jī- "live"	OP jīva- Prth. žīw-	√jīv: jī́va-	MP zī(w)- / zī(wi)st NP zīy- / zīst	II 2.1.3.3fn., III 5.5 = Ur.
ĬĪg "bowstring"	jiiā-	jyấ-	zih	II 2.1.3.4 GEB 177
čā "tea"			čāi	II 3.2.3.1
<i>čāt</i> "spring, well"	čāt-		čāh	II 2.1.2.1, 3.2.1.1 GEB 59 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:555
čāčā  "uncle (father's brother)"				III 2 Ind. (Si.) loanword
čāčī "aunt (father's brother's wife)"				III 2 Ind. (Si.) loanword
čār "4"	čaϑβārō (nom.) Prth. čafār	catvā́ras (Nom.)	č(ah)ār	II 2.2.1.5, 3.2.1.1, III 4 NP loanword
čārdah "14"	Prth. čafārðas		čār-dah	III 4 NP loanword see <i>čār</i> and <i>dah</i>
čāklēṭ, čāklēṭ "chocolate, sweets"				II 3.1.3.3 FARRELL (in print) Europ. (Engl.) loanword
čāp "chop (of meat)"				II 3.1.3.3 FARRELL (in print) Europ. (Engl.) loanword
čab(b)aw "sandal"				II 3.3.1.5 ELFENBEIN 1990/II:27 Ind. (Lhd.) loanword
čap(p) "left"			čap	II 3.3.1.5+fn. HÜBSCHMANN 1895:52 = NP
čuṭ(ṭ)ī "holiday"				II 3.3.1.5 Ind. (Si.) loanword
čar- / čar(i)t "graze"	√čar: <i>čara-</i> Prth. <i>čar-</i>	√car	čar-	II 2.1.2.2, 2.2.3.4fn., 3.3.1.5fn., III 5.3 GEB 55 = NP/Ur. see also čar(r)-

П	1	<b>I</b>	<b>I</b>	1
<i>čar(r)- / čar(r)it</i> "turn, move"	√čar: <i>čara-</i>	√car		II 2.1.2.2, 2.2.3.4fn., 2.3.2fn., 3.3.1.5fn., III 5.3 see also <i>čar</i> -
čark "wheel, machine"	čaxra- Prth. <cxr></cxr>	čakrá-	čarx	II 2.2.1.4, 3.2.2.1 GEB 56 GEIGER 1891:444 NP loanword
čaš(š)- / čaš(š)it "taste, sip"	Prth. <c'šny(g)></c'šny(g)>		čaš- / čašīd MP čāxšēn- "cause to taste"	II 2.2.1.2, 3.3.1.5 KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:216 <sup>86</sup> NP loanword
čuš(š)- "kiss, suck"				II 3.1.3.1, III 5.3 see <i>čūš</i> ( <i>š</i> )-
čuk(k) "child"				II 3.1.2.3, III 1fn., III 2 Ind. loanword?
<i>čik(k)- / čik(k)it</i> "pull"				II 3.3.1.5, III 5.6 ELFENBEIN 1990/II:28 Ind. (Si./Lhd.) loanword
čakar "circle"				II 3.3.1.1 = Ur. see <i>čark</i>
<i>čuk(k)ō</i> "stepchild"				III 2 see čuk(k)
čukī "(little) finger"				III 1
čal- / čalit "go"				II 3.1.1.3fn., III 5.6 Ind. (Ur.) loanword
čil(1) "40"	čaθβarəsat- Prth. čafrast	catvāriṁśát-	či(hi)l	II 2.2.1.5, 3.3.1.5fn., III 4 NP loanword
čul(l) "fireplace"				II 3.3.1.5fn. Ind. (Si./Lhd.) loanword
<i>č<sup>h</sup>ill</i> "skin"				II 3.3.1.5fn., III 1 Ind. (Si.) loanword
čam(m) "eye"	čašman- Prth. čašm	cákṣ-us-	čašm	II 2.1.2.2, 2.2.2.3, 3.1.1.1, 3.1.3.2, 3.2.1.1, 3.2.2.1, 3.2.3.1, III 1 GEB 52

čin- / čit "pick, gather"	√kay Prth. <i>čīn-</i>	√ci: činó-	čīn- / čīd	II 2.1.2.2, 2.3.1.2, III 5.1 GEB 60 see also gičin-
čunt "how much"	čuuant- Prth. čwand		čand	II 3.1.3.4 GEB 64
čandan "sandal wood, silver, shining"			čandan	III 3 Ind. loanword (via NP?)
<i>čin-ka(s)</i> etc. "how much"				II 3.1.1.3 see also <i>čunt</i>
čangul "claw"			čang	II 3.2.2.3, III 1 Ind. (Ur.) loanword
<i>čōp</i> "stick"			čōb	II 3.2.1.1, III 5.3 GEB 66 = NP
<i>čōp- / čōpit</i> "hit"				II 3.2.1.1, III 5.3 GEB 67 from <i>čōp</i>
čūčag, čūčūk "little (finger)"				III 1
<i>čūš(š)- / čūš(š)it</i> "kiss"			čōš- / čōšīd	II 3.1.3.1, III 5.3 ELFENBEIN 1963:29 = NP
čauk "crossroads"				II 3.1.3.3 Ind. loanword
<i>ča</i> , <i>ša</i> "of"	hača	sácā	az	II 2.3.1.2, 3.1.2.3.2, 3.2.1.1.1, V 1.5 GEB 1 see also <i>ač</i>
čē "what"	či-	kí-	či	II 3.1.2.3fn., 3.2.3.1, V 1.4 HORN 1893:100 EWAia I:347
<i>čēr</i> "under"			zēr	II 3.1.2.3 GEB 63 see also <i>ēr</i>
čīr(r) "rip, tear"				II 3.2.2.1 Ind. loanword

<i>čīgam, čīmag</i> "chewing gum"				II 3.3.1.1 FARRELL (in print) Europ. (Engl.) loanword
<i>xāhar</i> "sister"				II 3.2.4.1 NP loanword see <i>gwahār</i>
xačar "mule"				II 2.1.3.2 Ind. (Ur.) loanword
xazāna, -ā "treasury"			xizāna	II 3.1.4.1, 3.1.4.3 NP-Ar. loanword
xašm "fury"	aēšma- "demons"		xašm	II 2.4.1.3 NP loanword
dāt (past stem of day-)	dāta- Prth. dād	dātá-	dād	II 3.3.1.4, III 5.4 GEB 77, 79 = NP
dādā "sister"				III 2 Ind. (Si.) loanword see dādā
dār- / dāst "hold, have"	√dar: dāraiia- / dərəta- Prth. dār- / dird	√d <sup>h</sup> r: d <sup>h</sup> āráya- / d <sup>h</sup> ṛtá-	dār- / dāšt	III 5.4 GEB 75 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:556 NP loanword
dās "sickle"		dấtra-	dās	II 2.2.1.4 GEB 76 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:556 = NP
dān "until"				II 3.1.3.3fn. GEB 73 see also <i>tā</i>
dān "grain"	dānō°	d <sup>h</sup> ānấ- "roasted grain"	dāna	II 3.1.3.3, 3.3.1.4 GEB 74 GEIGER 1891:444 = NP
dāwā "lawsuit"			daʻwā	II 1.2.1 NP-Ar. loanword
dap "mouth"	zafar/n-	<i>jámb<sup>h</sup>a-</i> "teeth"	dahān	II 2.1.2.3fn., III 1 GEB 71 BAILEY 1979:351b Pers. loanword

dut(t)uk "daughter, doll"	OAv. duγədar- Prth. duxt	duhitár-	duxt, duxtar	II 3.2.2.1, III 2 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:44
dut(t)ag "daughter, doll"				II 3.2.2.1fn., III 2 see <i>dut(t)uk</i>
dajuk(k), jaduk(k) etc. "hedgehog"	dužaka-		žūža	II 3.1.2.3.4, 3.2.1.1.1, 3.3.1.5 BENVENISTE 1931:221f. MORGENSTIERNE 1932:52f.
duxtar "daughter"			duxtar	III 2fn. NP loanword see dut(t)uk
dar "door"	duuar- Prth. bar	dvấr-	dar	II 2.2.1.5 GEB 72 GEIGER 1891:444 = NP
dur(r) "pearl"			durr	II 3.3.1.5 NP-Ar. loanword
dir(r)- / dirt, dir(r)it "tear"	√dar: <i>dərəna-</i>	√dṛ: <i>dṛṇ</i> -	darr- / darrīd	II 2.2.3.4, 2.3.2, 3.1.2.3fn., III 5.3 GEB 78 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:62 see also <i>din</i> -
drāj "long"	°drājah- "length"		dirāz	II 2.1.2.2, 3.1.2.4, 3.2.1.1 GEB 84 EWAia I:728 see also <i>dēr</i>
darja(g) "degree"			daraja	II 3.3.2.1 NP-Ar. loanword (via Ur.)
dračk, drašk "tree"	Prth. draxt		diraxt	II 2.1.1.1fn., 3.1.2.2.2, 3.1.2.4, 3.1.3.1, 3.1.4.1, 3.2.1.1 GEB 82 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:43 KEWA II:37
dard "pain"	Prth. dard		dard	II 3.1.1.4 GEIGER 1891:447 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:60 NP loanword

drust "whole"	druua- + sti- "healthy life"		durust "right"	II 3.1.3.1 GEB 86 GEIGER 1891:444 HORN 1893:122 NP loanword
drustī, durstī "acquaintance"			durustī "propriety"	II 3.1.3.1 NP loanword see <i>drust</i>
dar-gējag "desire, invention"				II 3.2.1.1 from $g\bar{e}j$ -
darwāzag "door"			darwāza	II 2.2.1.5 NP loanword see also <i>dar</i>
drōg "lie"	drauya-	√druh "deceive"	durōġ	II 3.1.2.4, 3.3.1.4 GEB 49 = NP
duz(z) "thief"	<i>duždāh-</i> "evildoer"		MP duz(d) NP duzd	II 2.1.2.3fn., 2.2.2.6, III 5.4fn. GEB 88 NP/MP loanword
duz(z)- / duz(z)it "steal"			duzd- / duzdīd	II 2.1.2.3fn., III 5.4 NP loanword see $duz(z)$
<sup>‡+</sup> diž- / daxt "brand"	√daž: <i>daža</i> - Prth. <i>ō-daž</i> - "burn"	√dah: <i>dáha-</i> "burn"	MP daz- / dazīd	II 3.1.2.3.1, III 5.1 GEIGER 1891:400
dužmin, dušmin "enemy"	OAv. duž- manah-, YAv. duš-manah- Prth. dušmen	dur-manas-	dušman	II 2.1.2.4, 3.1.2.3.1, 3.3.1.1 = NP
dast "hand"	zasta-	hásta-	dast	II 2.1.2.3fn., III 1 GEIGER 1891:447 KLINGENSCHMITT 1975:77 <sup>2</sup> , 2000:200 <sup>30</sup>
dasad "thread"			dasa	II 2.1.1.1fn. MORGENSTIERNE 1937:347
duskīč "daughter/ sister-in- law"				II 2.2.1.4, 3.1.1.2, 3.1.1.3, III 2 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:43 see dut(t)uk

dušmān			duš-nām	II 3.3.1.1
"bad, evil"			uns-num	NP loanword see also dužmin
d <sup>h</sup> ak(k) "attack"				II 3.3.1.5fn. Ind. (Ur.) loanword
diks "compact disc"				II 3.1.1.2 Europ. (Engl.) loanword
dag(g) "road"				II 3.3.1.5fn. DAMES 1891:40 Ind. (Si.) loanword
diga(r), digir "other"			diga(r)	II 3.1.2.3, 3.3.2.1 NP loanword see also <i>adga</i> , <i>gidar</i> , <i>iptī</i>
dil "heart"			dil	III 1 GEIGER 1891:448 NP loanword see zird
dumb, dunbag "tail"	duma-		dum(b)	II 2.4.3.2, 3.1.1.4, 3.2.2.1fn. GEB 87 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:63 = NP
din- / dirt "tear"	√dar: <i>dərəna-</i>	√dṛ: <i>dṛṇ</i> -	darr- / darrīd	II 2.2.3.4, 2.3.2, 3.1.2.3fn., III 5.3 GEB 78 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:62 see also $dir(r)$ -
dantān "tooth"	dantan- Prth. dandān	dánt-	dandān	II 2.1.1.2, 3.1.1.3, 3.2.1.1.1, III 1 GEB 70
dō, du "2"	duua- Prth. dō	dvá-	do	II 2.2.1.5, III 4 NP loanword
duwāzdah "12"	duua.dasa Prth. dwāδes	dvấdaśa-	dawāzdah	II 2.2.1.5, III 4 NP loanword
dōbar, dōbar "breast"				II 3.1.1.4, III 1
<i>dūt</i> "smoke"	Prth. dūd	d <sup>h</sup> ūmá-	dūd	II 2.3.1.3, 3.1.2.3.1 GEB 90

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<i>dōč- ∕ dōtk</i> etc. "sew"			dōz-	II 2.1.1.2, 3.2.1.1, 3.2.2.1, 3.2.3.1, 3.2.4.1, III 5.1 GEB 91
dūr, dīr "far"	dūra-	dūrá-	dūr	II 3.1.2.3, 3.2.2.2 GEB 89 GEIGER 1891:444 = NP
dūžah, dōzax etc. "hell"	daožaŋ <sup>v</sup> ha- Prth. dōžah		MP dušox NP dōzax	II 2.1.2.4, 3.2.1.1fn., 3.1.2.3.1 GEIGER 1891:448
dōš- / dušt "milk"		√dug <sup>h</sup>	dōš- / dōxt	II 2.1.2.4, III 5.1 GEB 94 BARTHOLOMAE 1901:22
dūk(k), dīk(k), dix "spindle"			dūk	II 3.1.2.2, 3.1.2.3.1 GEB 93 GEIGER 1891:444 = NP
dōmī, dumī, duhmī "second"			duwum(īn)	II 3.1.3.2
(°)da "10" (and compounds)	dasa	dáśa-	(°)dah	II 2.1.3.4, 2.2.1.5, 3.1.3.3, 3.1.4.3, III 4 NP loanword
day- etc. (/ dāt) "give"	√dā Prth. <i>dah- / dād</i>	√dā	dah- / dād	II 2.1.1.2fn., 3.3.1.4, III 5.4, V 1.6 GEB 77 NP loanword
dīt, dist (past stem of gind- "see")	√daii: <i>dīta</i> - Prth. past stem <i>dīd</i>	√dʰī: dʰītá- "look"	(bīn- /) dīd	II 2.1.3.3fn., 3.1.2.2.1, 3.1.4.3, III 5.1 GEB 105
dīd, dīda(g) "(pupil of the) eye"			dīda	III 1 ELFENBEIN 1990/II:34 NP loanword see <i>dīt</i>
<i>dīdōk</i> "eyeball"				III 1 from <i>dīd</i>
dēr "late"	darəγa-	dīrg <sup>h</sup> á-	dēr	II 3.1.2.3fn. GEB 81 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:556 NP loanword

dēm "face"	daēman- "eye"	MP dēm, NP dīm	II 3.1.2.3.2, 3.2.1.1 GEB 80 HORN 1893:133 see also <i>dīt</i>
dēmā (postp.) "in front of"			II 3.1.2.3.2, V 1.5 obl. of <i>dēm</i>
dīm "back"			II 3.2.2.1 GEIGER 1891:410 HÜBSCHMANN 1893:63 see dumb
dīwāl "wall"		dīwār	II 3.1.1.4, 3.3.1.7 NP loanword (via Ur.)
dīwāna, -ā "mad"		dīwāna	II 3.1.4.3 NP loanword
dēh, dēh "country"			II 3.2.1.1 ELFENBEIN 1990/II:45 Ind. loanword
dādā "grandfather" dādī "grandmother"			III 2 GILBERTSON 1925/I:295 Ind. (Si./Ur.) loanword see dādā
dākṭar "doctor"			II 1.2.4, 3.3.1.7 Europ. (Engl.) loanword (via Ur.)
dun(n) "navel"			III 1 Ind. (Si.) loanword
dīs "(satellite) dish"			II 1.2.4 Europ. (Engl.) loanword
zabaḥ "slaughtering"		<u>z</u> abḥ	II 3.1.2.4 NP-Ar. loanword
zarra, zarā "atom"		<u>z</u> arra	II 3.1.4.3 NP-Ar. loanword
<i>zimma, -ā</i> "responsibility"		<u>z</u> imma	II 3.1.4.3 NP-Ar. loanword
-rā (acc./dat. suff.)		-rā	V 1.1
<i>rājā</i> "king"		rāja	II 3.1.4.3 Ind. loanword

<i>rān</i> "thigh"	rāna-		rān	III 1 GEIGER 1891:458 = NP
rab(b) "Lord, God"			rabb	II 3.3.1.5 NP-Ar. loanword
rupē, ruppī "Rupia (money unit)"				II 3.3.1.5 Ind. (Ur.) loanword
raj- / rajit "colour, tan"		√raj	raz- / razīd, rašt	II 2.1.2.2, 3.2.1.1.1fn., III 5.1, V 1.6
rud- / rust "grow"	$\sqrt{\text{raod}}$ Prth. $r\bar{o}\delta$ - / rust	$\sqrt{\mathrm{rud^h}}$	rōy- / rust	II 2.1.2.3, III 5.1 GEB 319
ras- / rasit "arrive"	OP rasa-	√ṛ: rccháti	ras- / rasīd	III 5.3 GEB 313 BARTHOLOMAE 1893:264 = NP
rastar "wild animal"			rastar	II 2.2.1.4 GEB 314 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:559
rak(k) "protection"				II 3.3.1.5fn. Ind. (Si.) loanword
rak(k) "lib, cheek"				III 1
rag "vein"	raηhā- (name of a river)	<i>rása-</i> "juice"	rag	III 1 GEIGER 1891:458 BAILEY 1979:361a NP loanword
rumb "run"				III 5.7 GEB 320 BARTHOLOMAE 1890:553
rumb- / rumbit "hurry"				II 2.1.3.1, III 5.7 GEB 320 BARTHOLOMAE 1890:553 from <i>rumb</i>
ramp "rough"				II 3.1.3.3 FARRELL (in print) Europ. (Engl.) loanword

rang "colour"		√raj "become coloured"	rang	II 3.2.2.3 GEIGER 1891:458 BAILEY 1979:362 KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:198 = NP
raw- (/ šut) "go"	≈ Prth. raf- / raft "attack"		raw- / raft	II 2.2.2.2, 3.1.3.4, 3.2.3.1, 3.3.1.4, III 5.4, V 1.6 GEB 322 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:559 HÄUSLER 2000 NP loanword
rū-ba-rū "opposite"			rū-ba-rū	II 3.3.1.6 NP loanword
rōp- / rupt "sweep"	urūpaiia- "cause to suffer"	√rup/lup "break"	rōb- / ruft	II 2.1.3.2, 2.2.1.1, III 5.1 GEB 329 HORN 1893:135 HUMBACH 1991/II:203
rōpāsk "fox"	Prth. rōbās	lopāśá-	rōbāh	II 2.1.1.1, 3.1.4.2 GEB 323 EWAia II:482
rōt "intestines"	uruðuuar-		MP rōdīg NP rūda	II 3.1.3.3, 3.1.4.2, III 1 GEB 331 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:49
<sup>‡</sup> <i>rōt</i> "river"	OP rautah- Prth. rōd	srótas-	rōd	II 3.3.1.4fn. GEB 330 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:559
rōtag "root"				II 2.1.1.1fn. GEB 332 BARTHOLOMAE 1890:553
<i>rōč</i> "day, sun"	OP raučah- Prth. rōž	rocaná- "light" etc.	<i>rōz</i> "day"	II 2.1.2.2, 2.2.4.3fn., 2.3.3, 3.1.1.3, 3.2.1.2 GEB 324
<i>rōd</i> "river"				II 2.2.2.5 GEB 326, 330 NP loanword see also <i>rōt</i>
rōd "copper" rōdgīn "red"	raoðita- "reddish"	lohá-	rūy	II 3.1.2.3.2, III 3 GEB 325 EWAia II:484

rōd "intestines"			MP rōdīg NP rūda	III 1 MP/NP loanword see <i>rōt</i>
rōšnā, rōžnā "light (adj.)" rōšnāī, rōžnāī "light (subst.)"			rōšanā('ī) "light (subst.)"	II 3.1.1.3 NP loanword see also $r\bar{o}\check{c}$
rōmast "rumination"		romant <sup>h</sup> a-		II 2.1.3.1 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:561 MORGENSTIERNE 1938:537
riy- "defecate"	√ray	√ri "let loose"	rīn- / rīd	II 3.2.1.1fn., III 5.1 GEB 315
<i>rēč- / rētk</i> etc. "pour"	√raēk Prth. past stem <ryxt></ryxt>	√ric	rēz- / rēxt	II 2.3.3, 3.1.2.3.2, 3.2.1.1, 3.2.2.1, 3.2.3.1, 3.2.4.1, III 5.1 GEB 316
rēs- / rist, rēs(i)t "spin, twist"	uruuaēsa- "turn" Prth. ā-rwis- / ā- rwist	vríś- "finger", vréśī- "whirl (in water)"	rēs- / rišt	II 2.2.3.6, 2.3.3fm., III 5.1 GEB 40, 314 EWAia II:462 = NP
rīš "beard"			rīš	III 1 GEIGER 1891:458 HORN 1893:142 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:68 NP loanword
rēk "sand"	√ray "defecate"	√ri "flow"	rēg	II 2.1.1.1, 3.1.2.3, 3.2.1.1 GEB 317 EWAia II:437
rēm "grass"			rīm	II 3.2.1.1.2 GEIGER 1891:414 HORN 1893:142
zātk, zāxt "child"	Prth. zādag		zāda	II 3.1.2.1, 3.1.2.2.1, 3.1.2.2.2, 3.1.2.3 GEB 418 see also $z\bar{a}y$ -
zār "lament"	Prth. zār "sorrow"		zār	II 3.1.2.4fn., 3.2.1.1.1fn., 3.2.3.3 HORN 1893:143 BAILEY 1979:199a = NP

zāl "woman"	zarəta- "old"	jarant- "old"	zāl "old woman"	II 3.1.2.3, III 2 GEB 419 GEIGER 1891:444 NP loanword
zāmāt "son-in-law"	zāmātar-	jấmātṛ-	dāmād	II 2.1.2.2, 3.2.1.1fn., III 2+fn. GEB 420
zāmās "son-in-law"				II 2.2.1.4, 3.2.1.1fn. see <i>zāmāt</i>
zāmtn "bail security"			zāmťn	II 3.3.2.1 NP-Ar. loanword see also <i>zāmnī</i>
<i>zān</i> "knee"	zānu° Prth. zānūg	jấnu-	zānū	II 2.1.3.1, III 1 GEB 421 NARTEN 1970:45ff.
zān- / zānt "know"	√znā: <i>zāna</i> - Prth. <i>zān- /</i> <i>zānād</i>	√jñā	dān- / dānist	II 2.1.2.3, 2.3.1.3, III 5.1, V 1.6 GEB 422
zāy-, zāh- / zāt, zāhit "give birth"	$\sqrt{zan}$ Prth. $z\bar{a}y$ - / $z\bar{a}d$	√jan	zāy- / zād	II 1.1, 2.1.3.4, 3.1.2.2, III 5.3 GEB 423
zubān, zawān "tongue, language"	hizuuā- Prth. izβān	jihvá-	zabān	II 2.2.2.3, 3.1.3.4, 3.2.1.1, III 1 GEIGER 1891:464 = NP
$zar(r)$ "gold, money" $zar(r)\bar{\iota}$ "silver, golden"	zarənaēna- "golden" Prth. adj. zarnēn	híraṇya-	<i>zarr</i> "gold"	II 2.2.3.4, 3.3.1.5, III 3 GEIGER 1891:463 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:69 NP loanword see also <i>zard</i>
zirā "sea", zirih "spring"	zraiiah-	<i>jráyas-</i> "distance"	daryā	II 3.1.2.4 GEB 425 HORN 1893:125
zard "yellow"	zairita-	hárita-	zard	II 3.1.1.4, III 3 GEIGER 1891:463 HORN 1893:146 NP loanword
zird "heart"	zərəδ(aiia)- Prth. zirδ	hṛd(aya)-	dil	II 2.1.3.4, 2.2.3.2, 2.3.2, 3.1.2.3fn., 3.3.1.4 GEB 426

<i>zardālū</i> "apricot"			zard-ālū	II 3.1.2.2.1 NP loanword see also <i>zard</i>
zarda "rice with saffron"			zarda	II 3.1.4.3 NP loanword
zarūr, zalūr "certainly"			zarūr	II 3.3.1.7 NP-Ar. loanword
zalar "harm"			zarar	II 3.3.1.7 NP-Ar. loanword
zamānag "time"			zamān(a)	II 3.2.1.3 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:69 BAILEY 1979:110a NP loanword
zamīk, zamīn "field, seed"			MP zamīk NP zamī(n)	II 3.2.2.3 GEB 415 GEIGER 1891:444 KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:201 NP loanword
zin- / zit, zīt "seize"	zināţ	√jyā: <i>jinā-</i>	ziyān "impairment"	II 2.1.3.1, III 5.1 GEB 424 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:560
zanūk, EBal. zanāx "chin"	zanauua "both jaws" Prth. zanax	hánu-	zanax	II 3.1.4.1, III 1 GEB 416 NARTEN 1970 EWAia II:801
zūt(t) "quick"	uzū <sup>i</sup> ti- "coming fast (water)" < *uz-zūti-	<i>jūtí-</i> "hurry"	zūd	II 2.1.3.1fn., 2.3.1.3, 3.1.2.3.1 GEB 430 EWAia I:580
<i>zōr</i> "power"	Prth. zāwar		zōr	II 2.1.3.3fn., 3.3.1.6fn. GEIGER 1891:464 KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:201, 214 = NP
zūr-, zīr- / zurt "take"		√hṛ		II 2.3.2, 3.1.2.3, III 5.1 GEB 429
zūm(m), zīm(m) "scorpion"	zauuah- "speed"	√jū "hurry"		II 3.1.2.3.1, 3.2.2.1 GEB 428

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zahr, zār, zahar "poison, anger"	Prth. žahr		zahr "poison"	II 3.1.2.4+fn., 3.2.1.1.1fn., 3.2.3.3 GEIGER 1891:463 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:71 NP loanword
zahrak "gall bladder"			zahra	II 3.2.1.1.1, 3.2.3.3fn. GEIGER 1891:463 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:71 NP loanword
zahg, zā(h)g "child"	Prth. zahag		MP zahag	II 3.1.2.1, 3.2.3.3 KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:201
zahm, zā(h)m "sword"			zaxm "wound"	II 3.2.3.3 GEIGER 1891:463 NP loanword
zī, zīk "yesterday"		hyás	dī-rōz	II 2.1.3.4 GEB 427
zyāt "much"			ziyād	II 3.3.1.4 NP-Ar. loanword
zēb "ornament"			zēb	II 3.3.1.6 BAILEY 1979:21a = NP
zīr(r)ag "cumin seed"		jīra-	zīra	II 3.1.1.1fn. HORN 1893:259 NP loanword
sārt "cold"	sarəta- Prth. <wys'r-> "freeze"</wys'r->	≈ śíśira- "cool season"	sard	II 3.1.1.4, 3.1.2.2.1, 3.1.2.4+fn. GEB 336 EWAia II:641
<i>sāh</i> "breath"		śvāsá-		II 2.2.2.3 GEB 339 MORGENSTIERNE 1927:66 = Lhd.
sāh, sā'ig etc. "shadow"	a-saiia- "without shadow"	c <sup>h</sup> āyấ-	sāya	II 2.1.1.1, 2.1.2.3fn., 2.1.3.4, 2.4.1.2 GEB 340 EWAia I:559
sāhat, sahat "hour, time"			sā <sup>c</sup> at	II 1.2.1, 3.2.3.1 NP-Ar. loanword

sāy-, sāh- / sāt "shave"	fra-sā-na- "cutting"	$\sqrt{c^h\bar{a}}$ : $c^hy\acute{a}$ -		II 2.1.3.4, 2.4.1.2, III 5.1 GEB 341 BAILEY 1979:424a LIV 547
sāikal, sēkal "bicycle"				II 3.1.3.3 FARRELL (in print) Europ. (Engl.) loanword
sabab "reason"			sabab	II 3.2.1.1.1 NP-Ar. loanword
sabr, sabar "patience"			şabr	II 3.1.2.3.1, 3.1.2.4 NP-Ar. loanword
sabz, sauz "blue, green"			sabz	II 3.3.1.6, III 3 GEIGER 1891:459 MORGENSTIERNE 1927:66 NP loanword
spēt, ispēt, sipēt "white"	spaēta- Prth. ispēd	śvetá-	safēd etc.	II 2.2.2.3, 2.3.4, 3.1.2.4, 3.3.1.6, III 3 GEB 166 GEIGER 1891:444 NP loanword
suč- / sutk "burn (itr.)"	√saoc Prth. <i>sōž- / suxt</i>	√śuc		II 2.1.2.3, 2.3.1.2, III 5.1 GEB 349 see also $s\bar{o}\check{c}$ -
sad "100"	sata-	śatá-	sad	III 4 NP loanword
sud(d) "consciousness"				II 3.3.1.5 Ind. (Ur.) loanword
sadak(k)a, sadka, -ā "alms, charity"			ṣadaqa	II 3.1.4.3, 3.3.2.1 NP-Ar. loanword
sar "head"	sarah- Prth. sar	śíras-	sar	II 2.3.2, 3.3.1.4, III 1 GEB 334ff. EWAia II:639 = NP
sarā (postp.) "on"				V 1.5 obl. of sar
srup "lead (metal)"	acc. srum		surb	II 2.2.2.5, 3.1.2.4 GEB 355 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:74f.
surkind "red-grey"				III 3 Ind. loanword?

Π				<del>,</del> -
srumb "hoof"	<i>srū-</i> "horn"	<i>śŕnga</i> - "horn"	surū "horn"	II 2.2.2.5, 2.4.3.2, 3.1.2.4 GEB 348 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:50
<i>srōp</i> "apple"				II 3.1.2.4fn. see also <i>sōp</i>
<i>srōš</i> "elbow"				II 2.2.2.5, 3.1.1.3, 3.1.1.3, 3.1.2.3.2, 3.1.2.4, III 1 GEB 354 MORGENSTIERNE 1948:51
sarōgān "head of a gang"				II 3.2.1.1 from <i>sar</i>
<i>srēn</i> "loins"	sraoni-	śróṇi-	surūn, surīn	II 2.2.2.5, 3.1.2.3.2, 3.1.2.4, 3.2.1.1, III 1 GEB 338 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:75
saġar "head"				II 3.2.1.1, III 1 see <i>sar</i> -
sak(k) "hard"	√sak "think of" Prth. saxt "compressed"	√śak "be able"	saxt	II 2.2.1.1, 2.2.4.3, 3.3.1.5fn. GEB 333
sik(k)- / sik(k)it "learn"				II 3.2.1.1, III 5.6 Ind. (Si.) loanword
suk(k) <sup>h</sup> "comfort"				II 3.3.1.5fn. Ind. (Si./Ur.) loanword
sik(k)a, -ā "coin"			sikka	II 3.1.4.3 NP-Ar. loanword
sag "dog"	span- Prth. <°spg>	śván-	sag	П 2.2.2.3
sil "skin"				III 1 EMENEAU/BURROW 1961 ROSSI 1979:110 Br. loanword
sil(1) "brick"				II 3.3.1.5 DAMES 1891/II:57 Ind. (Pnj.) loanword
sumb "hole"			sumb(a)	II 2.4.3.2fn., III 5.3 GEB 351 = NP

sumb- / supt, sunbit "pierce"			sunb- / suft	II 2.4.3.2fn., III 5.3 GEB 352 from sumb?
simit(t) "cement"				II 3.1.1.3 FARRELL (in print) Europ. (Engl.) loanword
<sup>‡</sup> sun- / sunit "hear"	√srav: surunao-	√śru: <i>śṛṇó-</i>		II 2.2.3.4fn., 2.3.2, III 5.5 GEB 353 = Ur.
sunt "chin, beak, sting"				III 1 ELFENBEIN 1990/II:133 Ind. (Lhd.) loanword
sind- / sist "break"	√saēd Prth. °sind- / sist	$\sqrt{c^h}$ id: $c^h$ inád-	(gusil- /) gusist	II 2.1.2.3, 2.2.2.1fn., III 5.1 GEB 342 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:559
sang, sing "stone"	asənga- OP aðanga- Prth. asang	≈ áśman-	sang	II 2.3.1.1, 3.1.2.3.1, 3.2.2.3 GEIGER 1891:460 BRANDENSTEIN/ MAYRHOFER 1964:107 = NP
sang "companionship"				II 3.2.2.3 Ind. (Ur.) loanword
sangat(t) "friend"				II 3.3.1.5, 3.3.2.1 Ind. (Ur.) loanword
sangtī "loyalty"				II 3.3.2.1 from <i>sangat(t)</i>
singal "signal (traffic lights)"				II 3.3.1.1 FARRELL (in print) Europ. (Engl.) loanword
<i>sunērī</i> "golden"				III 3 Ind. loanword
<i>sōp</i> "apple"				II 3.1.2.3, 3.1.2.4fn. see also <i>srōp</i>
sūt "use, gain"	√sav	√śū	sūd	II 2.3.1.3fn. GEB 357 EWAia II:623f.

<i>sōč- / sōtk</i> "burn sth."	$\sqrt{\text{saok: } sao\check{c}a}$ Prth. $s\bar{o}\check{z}$ - / $suxt$	√śuc	sōz- / sōxt	II 2.1.2.3, 2.3.3, III 5.1 GEB 358 see also <i>suč</i> -
sōč- / sōčit "think"				II 3.1.3.3, III 5.6 Ind. (Ur.) loanword
sōčin, sūč(č)in "needle"	sūkā-	sūcī́-	sōzan	II 2.1.2.2, 2.3.1.3fn., 3.1.1.2, 3.1.2.3.1, 3.1.2.3.2, 3.2.2.1 GEB 356 EWAia II:739
sūr "salty"			šōr	II 2.1.2.4 GEIGER 1891:431 KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:208 see also <i>šōr</i>
suhb, sōb "morning"			ṣubḥ	II 3.1.3.2, 3.3.1.1 GEIGER 1891:460 NP-Ar. loanword
suhr, sōr "red, golden, gold"	suxra- Prth. suxrag "purple"	<i>śukrá-</i> "light, clear"	surx	II 2.2.1.4, 3.1.3.2, 3.2.4.1, III 3 GEB 350 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:559
sihr, saḥr, saḥar "magic"			siḥr	II 3.1.2.4, 3.2.1.2 NP-Ar. loanword
sai, saē "3"	ϑraiia- Prth. hrē	tráyas	sih	II 2.1.3.4, 2.2.1.4, 3.2.1.1fn., III 4 GEIGER 1891:411 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:78 NP loanword
sī "30"	дrisat-	triňśát-	SĪ	III 4 KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:202 NP loanword
sī, sīk "pike, hook"			sēx	II 2.1.2.1fn. GEB 344 GEIGER 1891:344 KEWA III:334 = NP
<i>sīy- / sīt</i> "swel"	√sav "be of use"	√śav: <i>śváya-</i>		II 2.2.2.3 GEB 347

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syāh "black, dark"			siyāh	II 2.1.3.3, III 3 GEB 343 GEIGER 1891:444 NP loanword see also šān
sēzdah, sēzda(g) "13"			sēzdah	II 3.1.3.3, III 4 NP loanword see <i>dah</i>
sīkun "porcupine"	sukurəna-		sugur	II 2.2.3.4, 2.3.2fn. GEB 345 HORN 1893:164
sēnag "breast"	saēni- "top, peak"		sīna	III 1 GEB 346 GIPPERT 1993/I:243 see also sīna
sīngār "cosmetics"				П 3.1.3.3
sīna "breast"			sīna	III 1 GEB 346 GEIGER 1891:444 see <i>sēnag</i>
<i>šāt</i> "happy"	šiiāta-		šād	II 2.2.2.2 HORN 1893:169 = NP
<i>šād(d)ī</i> "joy"			šādī	II 3.1.1.1fn. NP loanword see also <i>šāt</i>
<i>šāgird</i> "pupil, beginner"			šāgird	II 3.1.1.4, 3.2.1.2 NP loanword
<i>šāmlī</i> "included"			šāmil	II 3.3.2.1 NP-Ar. loanword
<i>šāmīr</i> "red, crimson"				III 3
<i>šān</i> "black"	siiāuua- Prth. syāw(ag)	śyāvá-	siyāh	II 2.1.3.3, 2.2.4.1, III 3 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:51
šānzdah "16"			šānzdah	III 4 NP loanword see <i>dah</i>

<i>šāh</i> "horn, branch"		śākʰā-	šāx(a)	II 2.1.2.1 GEIGER 1891:460 KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:208 NP loanword
<i>šāhid</i> "witness"			šāhid	II 3.2.1.1 NP-Ar. loanword
<i>šā(h)ir</i> "poet"			šā <sup>c</sup> ir	II 1.1, 3.2.2.1fn. NP-Ar. loanword
<i>šāhīn</i> "falcon"			šāhīn	II 3.1.3.3 GREPPIN 1977:9 NP loanword
<i>šap</i> "night"	<i>xšap-</i> Prth. <i>šab</i>	kṣáp-	šab	II 2.2.1.2 GEB 362
šupānk, šipānk "shepherd"	fšu- "sheep etc." + √pā "protect" Prth. <i>šubān</i>	paśú- "sheep etc." + √pā "protect"	šubān, šabān	II 2.1.1.1, 2.2.1.2, 2.4.3.2, 3.1.2.3, 3.2.1.1, 3.3.1.6 GEB 367 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:560 see also <i>šawān</i>
šapčar, čapčal "bat"				II 3.1.1.3 GEB 362 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:560 see <i>šap</i> and <i>čar</i> -
šut (past stem of raw- "go")	YAv. √šav: <i>šuta-</i>	√cyu: cyutá-	šud	II 2.2.2.2, III 5.4 GEB 322 = NP
<i>šud</i> "hunger"	YAv. šuδ-	kṣúdʰ-	MP suy, šuy NP šuy	II 2.1.1.1, 2.1.1.2, 2.3.1.2, 3.3.1, III 5.2fn. GEB 371 EWAia I:667f. see also gušn
<i>šud-</i> "hunger"				III 5.2 from <i>šud</i>
<sup>‡</sup> šud- "wash (itr.)"	<i>xšudra-</i> "liquid"	√kṣud "crush"	šōy- / šust	III 5.1 GEB 372 see also <i>šōd</i> -
<i>šarāb</i> "wine"			šarāb	II 3.3.1.6 NP-Ar. loanword
<i>šarap, šarp</i> "honour"			šaraf	II 3.3.2.1 NP-Ar. loanword

<i>šurd</i> "mild"			<i>šul</i> "weak"	II 2.2.3.2, 3.3.1.4
šast, šašt "60"	xšuuašti-	șaștí-	šast	II 3.1.1.3, III 4 NP loanword
EBal. <i>šast-</i> , <i>šašt-</i> / <i>šastā</i> ϑ, <i>šaštā</i> ϑ- "send"	≈ fraēšiia- Prth. frēštag "angel"	≈ √iṣ	≈ fīrist- / fīristād	II 2.2.1.4, 3.1.1.3, III 5.1 GEB 360, 363 BAILEY 1979:487b
šaš(š) "6"	xšuuaš	sás-	šaš	III 4 NP loanword
<sup>‡</sup> šiš "louse"	spiš-		šipiš	II 2.2.2.3 MORGENSTIERNE 1927:69
<i>šak(k)</i> "doubt"			šakk	II 3.3.1.5fn. NP-Ar. loanword
šak(k) "comb"				II 3.3.1.5fn. GEIGER 1891:401 MORGENSTIERNE 1932c:30
<i>šakar, šak(k)al</i> "sugar"			šakar	II 3.2.1.1, 3.3.1.5, 3.3.1.7 GEIGER 1891:248 NP-Ar. loanword
<i>šukr, šukur, šugr</i> "thanks"			šukr	II 3.1.2.4+fn., 3.3.1.2 NP-Ar. loanword
<i>šikl, šikil</i> "form"			šikl	II 3.1.2.4 NP-Ar. loanword
šikam "belly"			šikam	II 3.1.2.3, III 1 NP loanword see <i>uškumag</i>
<i>šumā, šawā</i> "you (pl.)"	xšma-	yuṣmá-	šumā	II 3.2.1.1, 3.2.3.2, V 1.4 GEB 365 HORN 1893:176 = NP
<i>šambā</i> , -ē "Saturday"			šanba	II 3.1.4.3, 3.2.2.3 NP loanword
šamōš-, šamuš- / šamōšt, šamušt "forget"	Prth. frāmōš- / frāmušt	√mṛṣ	farāmōš- / farāmušt	II 2.2.1.4, 2.2.3.3, 2.3.2, III 5.1 GEB 360, 361 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:64 EWAia II:332

šanik(k)	s(a)čaēni-	I	1	П 2 2 2 4 3 2 1 1 2 2 1 5
"young goat"	s(u)cuem-			II 2.2.2.4, 3.2.1.1, 3.3.1.5 HOFFMANN 1967:36f. GERSHEVITCH 1971:267ff.
<i>šawān(k), šwānag</i> "shepherd"				II 3.1.3.4, 3.2.1.1, 3.3.1.6 = Kurd. see also <i>šupānk</i>
<i>šōd- / šust, šušt</i> "wash"	xšaoδah- "stream" Prth. šōδ- / šust "wash"	√kṣud "crush"	šōy- / šust	II 2.1.1.2, 2.2.1.2, 2.3.3, 3.1.1.3, 3.2.1.1, III 5.1 GEB 373 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:561 EWAia I:439 LIV 373 see also <i>šud</i> -
<i>šōr</i> "salty earth"	Prth. adj. <i>šūrēn</i>		šōr	II 2.1.2.4 GEIGER 1891:431 KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:208
<i>šōšak</i> "sale"				II 3.2.1.3 from šawašk-
šawašk- / šawaxt, šawašt "sell"	√vak: <i>vaxš</i> - Prth. <i>wāž</i> - / <i>wāxt</i>	√vac	MP frōxš- / frōxt NP furōš- / furōxt	II 2.2.1.4, 3.1.1.2, 3.2.1.3, III 5.1 GEB 360, 364 MACKENZIE 1961:79
<i>šauk</i> "desire"			šauq	II 3.1.3.3 NP-Ar. loanword
<i>šūnz</i> "green"				II 3.1.3.3, III 3 see <i>šīnz</i>
<i>šōm-</i> "plough"			šuxm	II 2.2.1.3, III 5.2 MORGENSTIERNE 1937:348 MACKENZIE 1961:71
šahd, šahad, šā(h)t "honey"			šahd	II 3.1.2.4, 3.2.2.2, 3.3.1.4 NP-Ar. loanword
<i>šahr</i> "town"	xšaðra- "rule"	<i>kṣatrá-</i> "rule"	šahr	II 3.2.3.3 NP loanword
<i>šēp</i> "creek, abyss" <i>šēp-mār</i> (a certain snake)	xšuuaēuua- "fast" Prth. <šybh> "path"	√kṣip "throw" <i>kṣiprá-</i> "fast"	<i>šēb</i> "declivity"	II 2.2.1.2 GEIGER 1889:81 GEB 370 BAILEY 1979:67B EWAia I:437 LIV 373

<i>šīnz / šūnz</i> "green"	axšaēna- "dark"		xašīn "blue etc."	II 2.2.1.2, 2.3.1.1fn., 3.1.3.3, III 3 HÜBSCHMANN 1884:427F. MORGENSTIERNE 1927:74 loanword?
<i>šēnak</i> "falcon"	saēna-	śyená-	MP sēn NP sī-murģ	II 2.2.2.5
<i>zāmnī</i> "guarantee, bail"				II 3.3.2.1 NP-Ar. loanword (via Ur.) see also <i>zāmin</i>
<i>zilā</i> <sup>c</sup> "district"			<i>zila</i> "side"	II 3.1.4.3 NP-Ar. loanword
<sup>°</sup> uzbā "limb, organ"			<sup>c</sup> uzw "member"	II 3.2.1.1.1 NP-Ar. loanword
<i>ṭamāʿ</i> "greed"			<u>t</u> ama <sup>c</sup>	II 1.2.1, 3.1.4.3 NP-Ar. loanword see also <i>tama</i>
<i>ġātī</i> "mule"				II 2.1.3.2 NP-Turk. loanword
<i>ġaban</i> "fraud"			ġabn	II 3.1.2.4 NP-Ar. loanword
garūr "pride, haughtiness"			ġurūr	II 3.3.2.3 NP-Ar. loanword
gusul "bath"			gusl "ritual washing"	II 3.1.2.4 NP-Ar. loanword
galṭī "misunderstanding"				II 3.3.2.1fn., 3.3.2.2 NP-Ar. loanword see also <i>galat</i>
fataḥ "victory"			fatḥ	II 3.1.2.4 NP-Ar. loanword
fazal "favour"			fazl	II 3.1.2.4 NP-Ar. loanword
fiqāh "Islamic law"			fiqh	II 3.1.4.3fn. NP-Ar. loanword
<i>qaṣūr</i> "guilt"			quṣūr	II 3.3.2.3 NP-Ar. loanword

quw(w)at "strength"			quwwat	II 3.3.1.5 NP-Ar. loanword
k- (pref.pres.)				V 1.6
-k (noun suff.)	-aka- Prthk		MP -ag NP -a	II 2.1.1.1, 3.1.4.1, V 1.8 see also -ak, -ag
$k\bar{a}d$ "bite" EBal. $k^h\bar{a}\delta$ - / $k^h\bar{a}\delta$ i $\vartheta$ - "chew"	vī-xāδa- "break off"	$\sqrt{k^h}$ ād	xāy-	II 2.1.2.1, III 5.5 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:48 ELFENBEIN 1985:233 EWAia I:451f. LIV 359
EBal. $k^{(h)}\bar{a}d\bar{\iota}$ "chin"				III 1 DAMES 1891:73 Ind. (Si.) loanword
kārč "knife"	karəta-	≈ kṛtí-	kārd	II 3.1.2.2 GEB 195 EWAia I:390 EAL 83
kākā "uncle (father's brother)"				III 2 Ind. (Ur.) loanword
kākī "aunt (father's brother's wife)"				III 2 Ind. (Ur.) loanword
<i>kāmōš</i> "quiet"			xāmōš	II 1.2.2, 2.4.1.3 NP loanword
kānṭ "horn"				II 3.2.4.3 Ind. loanword
kānūd, qānūd "law"			qānūn	II 3.3.1.3 NP loanword
kānīg "spring, well"	xā-, xạniia- Prth. xānīg	$k^h \acute{a}$ -	xānī	II 2.1.1.1, 2.1.2.1, 2.3.1.3 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:48 EWAia I:451
kabāb "roast meat"			kabāb	II 3.3.1.6 NP-Ar. loanword
kabāṭ "cupboard"				II 1.2.4, 3.3.1.4 Europ. (Engl.) loanword
<i>kabr, kabar</i> "grave"			qabr	II 3.1.2.4 NP-Ar. loanword

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kabg, kaug "partridge"			kabk	II 3.3.1.6 NP loanword see also <i>kapinjar</i>
kubl, kubul "lock (at a door)"			qufl	II 3.1.2.4, 3.3.1.1, 3.3.1.2 NP-Ar. loanword see also <i>kulp</i>
kibla, qiblā "direction of prayer"			qibla	II 3.1.4.3, 3.2.1.1 NP-Ar. loanword
kabūl "accepted"			qabūl	II 3.1.2.3.4 NP-Ar. loanword
kap "foam"	kafa-	kap <sup>h</sup> a-	kaf	II 2.1.2.1fn. GEB 188
kap- / kapt "fall"	Prth. kaf- / kaft			II 2.1.1.1, 2.2.1.1, 3.3.1.6fn., III 5.1 GEB 189
kapōt "dove, dove- coloured"	OP kapautaka- "blue"	kapóta-	MP kabōtar, kabōd NP kabūtar	II 2.1.1.1 GEB 191 EWAia I:303
kapinjar "partridge"		kapíñjala-		II 3.1.2.2.2, 3.3.1.6 GEB 190 ELFENBEIN 1990/II:82 Ind. loanword see also <i>kabg</i>
kat, xat(t) "line, letter"			xat(t)	II 1.2.2 NP-Ar. loanword
kutub "North"			qutb	II 3.1.2.4fn. NP-Ar. loanword
kitak "insect, louse"		kīṭá- "worm" (?)		II 2.1.1.1, 3.1.2.2 GEB 199 BAILEY 1979:101a EWAia I:355, 399
kaṭ(ṭ) "profit"				II 3.3.1.5fn. ELFENBEIN 1990/II:87 Ind. (Si./Lhd.) loanword
<i>ku<u>t</u>(t)- / ku<u>t</u>(t)it</i> "crush"				II 3.3.1.5, III 5.6 Ind. (Ur.) loanword
<i>kujā</i> "where"	kudā	kúha	ku, kujā	II 3.3.1.5 = NP

kujām "which one"			kudām	II 3.3.1.5 see <i>kujā</i>
kučk "shell"				II 2.1.1.1
kučik(k), kučak(k) "dog"			≈ kōčak "small, young"	II 3.1.2.2.1, 3.1.2.3.1, 3.3.1.5 GEB 203 = Kurd.
kad(d), qad(d) "size"			qadd	II 3.3.1.5fn. NP-Ar. loanword
kadr, kadar "measure"			qadr	II 3.1.1.4fn., 3.1.2.4 NP-Ar. loanword
kadī "when"	kaδa Prth. kaδ	kadā	kai	II 2.1.1.2, 2.3.1.3, 3.2.1.1+fn. GEB 182
kudā, xudā "God"			xudā	II 1.2.2 NP loanword see also <i>hudā</i>
*kar "donkey"	xara-	k <sup>h</sup> ará-	xar	II 2.1.2.1 GEB 192 see kargōš, har
<i>karāb, krāb</i> "bad"			<i>xarāb</i> "broken"	II 1.2.2, 3.3.2.1 NP-Ar. loanword see also <i>harāb</i>
karā'ī "wrist"				III 1 Ind. (Si.) loanword
ku(r)t (past stem of kan- "do")	√kar: <i>kərəta</i> - Prth. <i>kird</i>	√kṛ: <i>kṛtá</i> -	≈ kard	II 2.2.3.5, 2.3.2, 3.2.1.2, III 5.1 see <i>kan</i> -
EBal. k <sup>h</sup> ard "portion"			MP kardag "section"	II 3.1.1.4, 3.1.2.3.3 MP loanword
kar-gōš, xargōšk "rabbit"			xar-gōš	II 2.1.1.1, 2.1.2.1 GEB 192 see also <i>kar</i> , <i>har</i>
kirm "worm"		kŕmi-	kirm	II 2.3.2 GEB 197

kurm "pit"	√xram	√kram <sup>i</sup> "step"	xirman "heap of	II 2.2.1.4 Morgenstierne
pit		step	grain", xirām "beautiful gait"	1938:268 Rossi 1979:103
krōs, kurōs(k) "cock"	$\sqrt{x}$ raos "cry" Prth. $xr\bar{o}s$ "call" $xr\bar{o}sag$ "caller"	√kroś	xurōs	II 2.1.1.1, 2.2.1.4 GEB 202
kuṛāsag "great-grandchild"				II 3.2.1.1.2, III 2 GERSHEVITCH 1973:275 Psht. loanword
kas "person, somebody"	kasči <u>t</u>	kascit	kas	II 3.1.1.3fn., 3.2.4.1 GEIGER 1891:452 NP loanword
kus "vulva, vagina"		kukṣí- "stomach"	kus	III 1 GEB 206 GEIGER 1891:444 KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:208 NP loanword
kasān "small" kastir "smaller"	kasu- Prth. kas°		kih	II 2.1.1.1, 2.2.3.2, 3.2.1.1, V 1.2 GEB 439
kismat, qismat "destiny"			qismat	II 1.2.2 NP-Ar. loonword
kissa "story"			qiṣṣa	II 3.2.3.2 NP-Ar. loanword
kasīp, kāsib "turtle, tortoise"	kasiiapa-	kaśyápa-	kašaf	II 3.3.2.2 GEB 196
kaš "armpit"	kaša-	kákṣa-	kaš	III 1 GEIGER 1891:453 = NP
kaš(š)- / kaš(š)it, kašt "pull"	√karš	√kṛṣ: kárṣa-	MPM <qrš-> NP kaš- / kašīd</qrš->	II 2.2.3.3, III 5.3 GEB 193 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:558 = NP see also <i>kiš</i> -
kiš- / kišt "sow"	√karš Prth. $k\bar{a}r$ - / $ki\bar{s}t$	√kṛṣ: <i>kṛṣá</i> -	kār- , kiš- / kišt	II 2.2.3.3fn., 2.3.2, III 5.4 GEB 198 NP loanword see also <i>kaš</i> ( <i>š</i> )-

kuš- / kušt "kill"	kuša <sup>i</sup> ti Prth. kōš- / kōšād, kušt		MP kōš- / kōšīd, kuš- / kušt NP kuš- / kušt	II 2.3.2, III 5.3 GEB 207 KELLENS 1984:101 = NP
$k^{(h)}il(l)$ "axe of millstone"				II 3.3.1.5 Ind. loanword?
kul(l) "whole"			kull	II 3.3.1.5 NP-Ar. loanword
kulāh "cap, hat"			kulāh	II 3.2.1.2 GEIGER 1891:453 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:88 NP loanword
kulp, kulf "lock (at the door)"			qufl	II 1.2.2, 3.2.1.2fn., 3.3.1.1 NP-Ar. loanword see also <i>kubl</i>
kalak(k) "cheek"			kala	III 1 GEIGER 1891:421 ELFENBEIN 1961:94 <sup>4</sup> ROSSI 1979:101
kilīt "key"			kilīd	II 3.2.1.2, 3.3.1.4, 3.3.2.1 GEIGER 1891:453 NP loanword (from Greek)
kam(m) "few, little"	kamna- Prth. <kmbyg> "short"</kmbyg>		kam	II 3.3.1.5 GEIGER 1891:452 NP loanword
kamāš "greyhaired, respected"				II 3.3.1.5 Rossi 1979:69
kamān "bow"			kamān	II 3.2.1.1 GEB 194 GEIGER 1891:444 NP loanword
kumb "pool"	xumba- "pot" Prth. <xwmb> "pitcher"</xwmb>	<i>k<sup>h</sup>umbá-</i> "pot"	xum(b) "pot"	II 2.1.2.1, 2.1.3.1 GEB 204 MORGENSTIERNE 1948:288 see also humb

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kambar "coloured, grey- brown"		<i>kambara-</i> "spotted"		III 3 GEB 184 GEIGER 1891:444 ELFENBEIN 1990/II:80 Ind. loanword
<i>kampōdar</i> "pharmacist"				II 3.1.1.3 FARRELL (in print) Europ. (Engl.) loanword
kumak(k), kūmak "help"			kumak	II 3.1.2.2.2, 3.3.1.5, 3.3.2.3 GEIGER 1891:421 NP loanword
kan- (/ ku(r)t) "do"	√kar: kərənao- Prth. kar- (/ kird)	√kṛ: <i>kṛṇó-</i>	kun- (/ kard)	II 2.2.3.4fn., 2.3.2, 3.2.2.1fn., III 5.1, V 1.6 GEB 185 GERSHEVITCH 1970:172 <sup>32</sup> HOFFMANN 1976:587f. see also <i>kurt</i>
kunčit, kunčīt "sesame"		kuñcita- "crooked, bent"	kunjid, kunjīd	II 3.1.2.2 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:561 BAILEY 1979:61f.
kand- / kandit "laugh"	Prth. xand-		xand- / xandīd	II 1.2.2fn., 2.1.2.1, III 5.3 GEB 186 BAILEY 1979:71 see also <i>hand</i> -
kand "gap"	kanti- "digging" ≈ Prth. ab-gan- / ab-gand "throw"	√kʰan "dig"	kand	II 3.1.1.4 = NP
kawāsag "great-grandchild"				II 3.2.1.1.2fn. GERSHEVITCH 1973:275 Psht. loanword see kuṛāsag
kōp sāsar "cup and saucer"				II 3.1.3.3 FARRELL (in print) Europ. (Engl.) loanword
kōpag "shoulder"	kaofa- "hill" Prth. kōf "hill, mountain"		kōh "mountain"	II 2.1.1.1, 2.1.2.1, 2.1.2.3fn., 2.3.3, 3.1.2.3, III 1 GEB 211
kōṭa "room"				II 3.2.3.1 BUDDRUSS 1988:76 Psht. loanword

kōč- "dig"				II 3.1.3.3, III 5.6 Ind. (Ur.) loanword
kaur, kōr, kūr "mountain river"			kaura "torrent"	II 3.1.2.3, 3.3.2.2 GEB 212 MORGENSTIERNE 1927:99
kauš "shoe"			kafš	II 3.3.1.6 GEB 213 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:556 NP loanword
kūn "anus"			kūn	III 1 GEB 208 GEIGER 1891:444 NP loanword
kōnḍ "cave; lair"				III 1 ELFENBEIN 1990/II:81 Ind. (Ur.?) loanword
kōnḍ "knee"				III 1 ELFENBEIN 1990/II:81 Ind. (Si.) loanword?
kōh "mountain"			kōh	II 3.2.3.1 NP loanword see kōpag
kwahn, kōhn, kauhn "old"				II 2.2.1.5, 3.1.2.3.3, 3.1.3.2, 3.3.2.3 see <i>kuhn</i>
kuhn "old"	Prth. <kfwn></kfwn>		MP <khwn> NP kuhan, kuhna</khwn>	II 2.2.1.5, 3.1.2.3.2, 3.1.3.2 BAILEY 1979:56b, 64b NP loanword see also <i>kōhn</i>
kai "who"	ka-	ká-	ki	V 1.4 GEB 200
kīāl "thought"			xiyāl	II 1.2.2 NP-Ar. loanword see also <i>hayāl</i>
kēr "penis"			kēr	III 1
kīrg "grey-white"				III 3 Ind. loanword?

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<i>kēriat</i> "health"			xairiyat "welfare"	II 1.2.2, 3.3.2.2 NP-Ar. loanword see also <i>hēriat</i>
kīs(s)ag "bag, pocket"			kīsa	II 3.1.4.1, 3.3.1.5 NP-Ar. loanword
kīmat, qīmat "value"			qaimat	II 3.3.2.2 NP-Ar. loanword (via Ur.)
gā(y)- / gāt "coire"			gāy- / gā(ī)d	II 2.1.3.4, III 5.3 GEB 102 MORGENSTIERNE 1927:24 EWAia I:602f.
gāh "time"	gātu- "place"		gāh	II 2.1.2.1 = NP
gub(b) "cheek"				III 1
gap(p) "talk, conversation"			gap	II 3.3.1.5fn. NP loanword
gap(p) "mud"				II 3.3.1.5fn. Ind. (Si.) loanword
gat(t) "busy"				II 3.3.1.5fn. Rossi 1979:64
gut(t) "throat"				III 1 MORGENSTIERNE 1927:27, 1932:38 GILBERTSON 1925:681 Ind. loanword
gut(t)ag, gut(t)ig "kidney"	νәгәδka-	vṛkká-	gurda	III 1
gač(č) "crowded"				II 3.3.1.5fn. Ind. (Ur.) loanword
<sup>‡</sup> gičin- / gičint "collect"	√kay: vī-činao- Prth. past stem wižīd-	√ci: vi-cinó-	guzīn- / guzīd	II 2.1.2.2, III 5.1 GEB 104 HORN 1893:101, 204 see also <i>čin</i> -
gičēn "selected"				II 2.1.2.2fn., 2.1.3.3fn. from <i>gēč</i> -

gidar "other"			digar	II 3.3.1.1 NP loanword see also <i>digar</i>
gar "abyss"	ga <sup>i</sup> ri- "mountain"	girí- "mountain"		II 2.3.2, 3.1.1.4fn. GEIGER 1891:400 MORGENSTIERNE 1927:26
gir- / gipt "take"	√garəw: gəruuaiia- Prth. girw- / grift	√grab <sup>h</sup> : gṛb <sup>h</sup> āyá-	gīr- / girift	II 2.3.2, 3.1.2.2.1, 3.1.2.3fn., 3.2.2.1fn., III 5.4 GEB 106 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:557 pres.stem = NP
gurānḍ "male sheep"				II 3.1.3.3 Ind. loanword?
gardin, gardan "neck"	√varət "turn"	√vṛt "turn"	gardan	II 3.1.2.3, 3.3.2.3, III 1 GEIGER 1891:449 HORN 1893:201 NP loanword
gurk "wolf"	vəhrka-	vṛka-	gurg	II 2.3.2, 3.2.1.1fn., 3.1.1.4 GEB 140 = NP
garmī "heat"			garmī	II 3.2.3.2
grand "thunder"				II 3.1.2.4, III 5.7 GILBERTSON 1925:683 Ind. (Ur.) loanword
grand- / grandit "thunder"				II 3.1.2.4, III 5.7 GILBERTSON 1925:683 Ind. (Ur.) loanword
grē(w)- / grēt "weep"	√garəz	√gṛh	girī- / girīst	II 1.2.1, 2.4.3.1, 3.1.2.3, 3.1.2.4, III 5.4 GEB 117 HENNING 1934:203 NP loanword
garīb "poor" garībī "poverty"			ġarīb	II 1.2.2, 3.3.1.6 NP-Ar. loanword
gaz(z) "tamarisk"			gaz	II 3.3.1.5 GEIGER 1891:449 BAILEY 1979:80a NP loanword

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gaz(z) "yard"			gaz.	II 3.3.1.5fn. GEIGER 1891:449 NP loanword
EBal. guz- / gwast <sup>h</sup> - "pass"				II 3.1.3.4 see also gwaz-
gaž(ž)- , ġaž(ž)- "swell with rage"				II 3.3.1.5fn.
<sup>‡</sup> gužg "root"				II 2.2.3.3, 2.3.2, 3.2.1.1 MORGENSTIERNE 1927:95, 1932:46
gis "house"	vīs- Prth. wis°	víś-		II 2.1.2.3, 2.3.1.2, 3.2.3.1 GEB 108
EBal. gas- / gasiϑ- "bite"	√gah: gaŋha- ≈ Prth. gaz- / gašt	$\sqrt{g^h}$ as	≈ gaz- / gazīd	II 2.1.1.2, III 5.1 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:45
gisir- "get lost"				II 3.3.1.7, III 5.6 DAMES 1891:79 Ind. (Si.) loanword
guš- / gušt "say"	vaša- Prth. wāž- / wāxt	√vac: vacyá-		II 2.2.1.2fn., 2.2.2.2, 3.1.3.4, 3.2.1.3, 3.2.2.3 GEB 143 HUMBACH 1956:75 HOFFMANN/NARTEN 1989:65 <sup>96</sup> see also <i>gwaš</i> -
gušn "hunger" gušnag "hungry"	Prth. <wšynd></wšynd>		gušna	II 2.1.1.1, 2.1.3.3fn., 2.2.2.1, 3.1.1.3, 3.1.2.3 GEB 120 HORN 1893:202 KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:204 <sup>41</sup> NP loanword
EBal. <i>gušōx</i> "singer, reciter"				II 3.2.1.1 from guš-
EBal. guf- / <sup>‡</sup> guft "weave"				II 2.1.3.3, 3.1.3.4, III 5.1 see gwap-
gal "group, multitude"			galla "flock"	II 3.1.2.2.1 GEB 96 GEIGER 1891:444 = NP

gal "cheek"				III 1 DAMES 1891:80 Ind. (Si.) loanword
gulāb(ī) "pink"			gulāb "rose water" gulābī "rose-colour"	III 3 NP loanword
galat "wrong"			galaṭ "mistake"	II 1.2.2, 3.3.2.1fn. NP-Ar. loanword see also <i>galṭī</i>
gulg "hair"		≈ gláu- "swelling, bump"	gulūla "bullet, ball of thread"	III 1 HORN 1893:207 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:94f. EWAia I:511).
$gul(l)\bar{\iota}$ "blue"				III 3 Ind. loanword?
gam(m), ġam "grief, sorrow"			ġam(m)	II 1.2.2 NP-Ar. loanword
gumān, guwān "doubt"			gumān	II 3.2.1.1 GEB 121 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:557 NP loanword
gamgīn "sad"			ġamgīn	II 1.2.2 NP loanword
gunās "sin"	≈ vinasta- "damage" Prth. winās	vināśa- "destruction"	gunāh	II 2.1.3.3 GEB 119 partially NP
gind- (/ dīt, dist) "see"	√vaēd: <i>vi-na- / vista-</i> Prth. <i>wind- / windād</i>	√vid		II 2.1.3.3, III 5.1 GEB 105 see also <i>dīt</i>
gandīm "wheat"	gantuma-	god <sup>h</sup> úma-	gandum	II 3.1.2.2fn. GEB 98 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:556 EWAia I:498
gwāt "wind"	vāta- Prth. wād	vấta-	bād	II 2.1.1.1, 2.3.1.3, 3.2.1.1 GEB 148
gwār- / gwărt "rain"	vāra- "rain (noun)" Prth. wār- / wārād	vấr- "water"	bār- / bārīd	II 2.1.3.3, III 5.1, V 1.6 GEB 147

‡*gwār(d)ik "flower"	Prth. wār		gul	II 2.2.3.2 Morgenstierne 1932;46
gwārō "stepsister"				III 2 see gwahār
gwāz "fathom"			bāzū	II 3.3.1.7 MORGENSTIERNE 1937:347 adaptation of NP
gwālag "bag"			guwāl	II 2.1.3.3fn., 3.1.3.4fn. MORGENSTIERNE 1948:288 NP loanword
‡gwānj- / gwānjiϑ- "call"				II 2.2.4.2, III 5.2 GEB 144 GERSHEVITCH 1971:283 see also gwān-jan-, gwānk
gwān-jan- / gwān- jat "cry, call"				II 2.2.4.2, III 5.2 GEB 144 GERSHEVITCH 1971:283 see also gwānk, jan-
gwānk "cry"			MP wāng NP bāng	II 2.1.3.3+fn., 2.2.4.2 GEB 146
gwāhī "testimony"			MP wigāhīh NP guwāhī	II 3.1.3.4fn. MORGENSTIERNE 1948:288 NP loanword
gwabz, gwamz "wasp"	vaβžaka-		MP wawž	II 3.2.1.1fn., 3.2.1.3 GEB 132 BARTHOLOMAE 1890:552 BAILEY 1931:212
gwap- / gwapt "weave"	√vab Prth. <i>waf</i> -	√vab <sup>h</sup>	bāf- / bāft	II 2.1.3.3, 2.2.1.1, 3.1.3.4, 3.2.1.1, III 5.1 GEB 134 BARTHOLOMAE 1890:552 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:557 see also <i>gup</i> -
gūt "mud"	gūϑa- "excrement"	gūt <sup>h</sup> a-	gūh	II 2.1.2.1, 2.3.1.3, 3.2.1.1 GEIGER 1891:400 BAILEY 1979:85a

gwač(č) "calf, hen"				II 3.3.1.7 GEIGER 1891:424 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:45 Ind. loanword see also <i>gwask</i>
gōdān "breast, udder"	gaoðana-			III 1 GEB 122 see $g\bar{o}k$
<sup>‡</sup> gwadil "cowardly"			wad-dil	II 2.1.3.3fn. GEB 130
gōḍ "knee"				III 1 MORGENSTIERNE 1932c:16 Ind. loanword?
gwar "breast"	varah-	úras-	bar	III 1 GEB 135 BARTHOLOMAE 1904:1365
gwarā "near"				III 1 GEB 136 from gwar
‡gwark "wolf"				II 2.3.2 see gurk
gwarag, gwarak "lamb"	Prth. warrag	≈ uraka-, úran-	barra	II 2.1.1.1 GEB 137 MORGENSTIERNE 1927:88 HOFFMANN 1982:84ff.
gwarm "surf, wave"	varəmi- Prth. warm	ūrmí-		II 2.3.2 GEB 141 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:558 EWAia I:245
gōṇā "horse"				II 2.2.2.3 MORGENSTIERNE 1973:334 Ind. (Ur.) loanword
gwaz- / gwast "pass by"	√vaz: <i>vaza</i> - "transport" Prth. <i>waz</i> - "move swiftly"	√vah "bring"	waz- / wazīd "blow"	II 2.1.3.3, 3.1.3.4, 3.2.1.3, III 5.1 GEB 144 see also guz-
gwask "calf"		vatsá-		II 2.1.1.1, 2.1.3.3 GEB 142 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:26

<i>gōš</i> "ear"	gaoša-	√g <sup>h</sup> uṣ "sound"	$gar{o}\check{s}$	III 1 GEB 125 GEIGER 1891:444 = NP
gwaš- / gwašt "say"				II 2.1.3.3, 3.2.1.3, 3.2.2.3, III 5.1 GEB 143 see guš-
gōšt "meat"			gōšt	II 3.3.1.6 GEB 128 KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:218 <sup>86</sup>
<i>gōk</i> "cow"	gau-	gáv-	gāw; gōg "calf"	II 2.1.1.1 GEB 123 BAILEY 1979:89A EWAia I:479
<i>gōkurt</i> "sulphur"	gaokərəna- (name of a tree)		gōgurd	II 2.3.2, III 1fn. GEIGER 1891:401 KLINGENSCHMITT 1965:31f. BAILEY 1979:96a
gōn "with"	gaona- "colour"		MP gōn "colour"	II 3.1.1.3, 3.1.2.3.2fn., 3.1.3.3, 3.2.2.3, 3.2.4.3 GEB 124 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:557
gwan "pistachio"	vanā- "tree"	vána- "tree, wood"	bun "log, root"	II 2.1.3.3, III 2fn. GEB 133
gwand, gwand "small, short"				II 3.1.1.4 Morgenstierne 1929:256a Bailey 1979:374b
gwahār, gwār "sister"	x <sup>v</sup> aŋhar- Prth. wxār	svásṛ-	x <sup>w</sup> āhar	II 2.1.2.5, 2.1.3.3, 2.2.1.6, 3.2.3.1 GEB 131 MORGENSTIERNE 1927:97 see also <i>guhār</i>
gwahr "cold (noun)"	vafra- "snow" Prth. wafr		barf "snow"	II 2.1.3.2, 2.2.1.4, 3.3.1.7fn. MORGENSTIERNE 1948:254

Gwahrām (name)	Vərəθra-γna- "slaying the demon"		Bahrām	II 2.1.3.3 BARTHOLOMAE 1904:1422 MORGENSTIERNE 1937:347 <sup>1</sup> Pers. loanword
guhār "sister"				II 3.1.3.4 see gwahār
gīāb, gīābān "desert"	Prth. wiyābān		bīābān	II 2.1.3.3 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:41 Pers. loanword
gēt "willow tree"	vaēti-	vetasá- "calamus rotang"	bēd	II 2.1.3.3 GEB 115 BARTHOLOMAE 1904:1314
gēj- / gētk "swing, throw"	√vaēg	√vij "move quickly, surge"	angēz- / angēxt "instir, get to move"	II 3.2.1.1, 3.2.2.1, 3.2.3.1, III 5.1 GEB 113
gēč- / gētk "sift"	vaēča- Prth. wixtag "chosen"	√vic	bēz- / bēxt	II 2.1.3.3, 2.3.3, III 5.1 GEB 112 KELLENS 1984:139
gīst "20"	vīsa <sup>i</sup> ti	viṁśatí-	bīst	II 2.1.3.3, 2.3.1.3fn., III 4 GEB 111
gēš "more"			bēš	II 2.1.3.3, 2.3.3fn., 3.1.2.3 GEB 114 GERSHEVITCH 1964:87 Pers. loanword
gīn "breath"	<i>vaēnā-</i> "nose"	<i>véna-</i> "follow, track"	MP wēnīg NP bīnī "nose"	II 2.1.3.3, 2.3.1.3fn., 3.1.2.3, III 1 GEB 109 GOTŌ 1987:298
-gīn (adj. suff.)	Prthgēn		MP -gēn	II 3.1.2.3.2 SALEMANN 1901:280 = MP
gēnīč "coriander"			gišnīz	II 2.2.2.1, 3.1.3.2 GEIGER 1891:400 HENNING 1963
lāp "belly"				III 1 GEB 219
<i>lālā, lālō</i> "brother"				III 2 Ur./NP loanword

lab "lip"	lab	III 1
lab(b) "bride-price, bribe"		II 3.3.1.5 ELFENBEIN 1990/II:89 Ind. (Si.) loanword
lap "lip"	lab	III 1 GEB 216
lut(t) "plunder"		II 3.3.1.5fn. Ind. (Si./Lhd./Ur.) loanword
laj(j) "shame"		II 3.3.1.5fn. DAMES 1891:85 Ind. (Si./Ur.) loanword
luč(č) "wretch; naked"		I 1.3 GILBERTSON 1925:787 Ind. (Ur.) loanword
lad(d) "load, moving"		II 3.3.1.5fn. DAMES 1891:86 Ind. (Si.) loanword
lak(k) "100.000"		II 3.3.1.5 Ind. (Si./Ur.) loanword
lik(k)- / lik(k)it "write"		III 5.6 Ind. (Si.(Ur.) loanword
-luk (diminutive suffix)		II 2.1.1.1fn.
lagōr "coward"		II 2.1.3.3 GEB 215 EAL 90 Ind. loanword
lil(l)ik "tongue"		III 1 Ind. loanword?
lunt "lip"		III 1 Ind. loanword?
lankuk, lunkuk "finger"		II 3.1.1.3, 3.1.2.3.4, III 1 Ind. loanword?
ling "leg"	ling	III 1 GEB 220 GEIGER 1891:444 = NP

lōṭ- / lōṭit "want"				III 5.6 Ind. (Ur.) loanword
lūč "naked"			lūč	I 1.3 = NP see also <i>luč</i> ( <i>č</i> )
lōg "house, family"				I 1.3, II 2.4.2, 3.2.1.1fn., III 2 Ind. (Ur.) loanword
lōgī "wife"				II 3.2.1.1.1fn., III 2 from <i>lōg</i>
<i>lēṭ- / lēṭit</i> "lie down"				III 5.6 Ind. (Si./Ur.) loanword
<i>lēkin</i> "but"			lēkin	V 1.7 NP-Ar. loanword
līmbō, līmbū, līmū "lemon"			līmū(n)	II 3.3.1.2 NP loanword see also $n\bar{t}m\bar{o}n$
ma- (neg.pref. ipr./subj.)			та-	V 1.2
<i>mā</i> obl. <i>mārā</i> gen. <i>mai</i> "we"			mā	II 3.2.1.3, V 1.4 = NP see also $am(m)\bar{a}$
māt "mother"	mātar- Prth. mād(ar)	mātŕ-	mādar	II 2.1.1.1, 2.3.1.3, 3.2.1.1fn., 3.2.4.1fn., 3.3.1.4, III 2 GEB 234 see also <i>mās</i>
mātō, mātū(n) "stepmother"				II 3.1.2.3, III 2 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:49 see also <i>māt</i>
mās "mother"	obl. <i>māθr-</i>	obl. <i>mātr</i> -		II 2.2.1.4, 3.1.1.1, 3.2.1.1, 3.2.3.1fn., III 2 BARTHOLOMAE 1885:130, 133 see also <i>māt</i>
māsū "stepmother"				II 3.1.2.3, III 2 see <i>mās</i>

māsī "aunt (mother's sister)"				III 2 MORGENSTIERNE 1948:284 Ind. (Si./Ur.) loanword
<i>mālkēṭ</i> "market"				II 3.3.1.7 Europ. (Engl.) loanword
māmā "uncle (mother's brother)"				III 2 DAMES 1891:88 Ind. (Si./Ur.) loanword
māmī "aunt (mother's brother's wife)"				III 2 Ind. (Si./Ur.) loanword
māhpar, mahpar "hair"				III 1
māhīg "fish"	Prth. māsyāg	mátsya-	māhī	II 2.1.1.1fn., 2.2.4.3 HOFFMANN 1979/II:637 <sup>25</sup> NP loanword see also <i>mač(č)ī</i>
maṭ(ṭ) "equal"				II 3.3.1.5fn. DAMES 1891:89 Ind. (Si.) loanword
muj, muž "fog, storm"			тиž	II 2.1.2.4fn., 3.2.1.1fn. GEB 246
majg, mažg "brain"			MPT <mgj></mgj>	II 2.1.2.3fn. see mazg
muč(č) "collected, supplied"				II 3.2.1.1fn., 3.3.1.5fn. DAMES 1891:89 Ind. (Si.) loanword
mič- / mitk "suck"	maēkant- "(water) coming out"		maz- / mazīd	II 2.1.3.1, 2.3.1.2fn., 3.1.2.3fn., III 5.1 GEB 235 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:98 BAILEY 1979:322b see also <i>mēč</i> -
mičāč "eyelash"		√miş "open the eyes"	muža	II 3.1.1.3fn., III 1 GEB 236 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:558 EWAia II:379f.
mač(č)ī "fish"				II 3.3.1.5 Ind. (Si.) loanword see also $m\bar{a}h\bar{\iota}g$

mud(d) "period of time"			muddat	II 3.3.1.5+fn. DAMES 1891:89 NP-Ar. loanword
madag "locust"	табаха-		maig	II 2.1.1.1, 2.1.3.1 GEB 221 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:100
mir- / murt "die"	√mar: <i>miriia</i> - Prth. <i>mīr- / murd</i>	√mṛ: <i>mriyá</i> -	mīr- / murd	II 2.3.2, 3.1.1.4, 3.1.2.2.1, 3.1.2.3.1fn., III 5.3 GEB 237 = NP
marčī "today"				II 3.2.3.2, 3.2.1.1 see also <i>marōčī</i>
mard "man, husband"	maṣ̃a- Prth. mard	márta-	mard	II 2.2.4.3, 3.1.1.4, 3.3.1.4, III 2 GEB 224 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:558 NP loanword
murdān "finger"		mudrấ- "seal (ring)"	muhr "seal (ring)"	III 1 GEB 242 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:558 GEIGER 1891:415 ELFENBEIN 1990/II:100 Ind. loanword?
marz "clodcrusher"			māla "harrow"	II 2.2.3.2, III 5.2 MORGENSTIERNE 1948:290 see also <i>marz</i> -
marz- / marzit "stroke, harrow"	√marz: <i>marəza</i> - Prth. <n-mrz- n-mwšt=""> "wipe off"</n-mrz->	√mṛj	māl- / mušt, mālīd	II 2.2.3.2, III 5.2 HORN 1893:214 ELFENBEIN 1985:233 see also <i>marz</i>
mark "death"	YAv. mahrka- (Prth. murt)	marká-, márka- (name)	marg	II 2.3.2fn., 3.3.1.4 GEB 225 GEIGER 1891:444 HOFFMANN/FORSSMAN 1996:92 = NP
murg "bird"	тәтәуа- Prth. тигу	<i>mṛgá-</i> "wild animal"	murģ	II 2.1.3.4fn., 2.3.2, 3.1.1.3 GEB 243 GEIGER 1891:444 = NP

<i>marōčī</i> "today"			im-rōz	II 2.3.1.1, 3.2.1.1, 3.2.3.2 GEB 226 GEIGER 1891:436 ELFENBEIN 1990/II:100
muz(z) "wages"	mīžda-	mīḍʰá-	MP mizd NP muzd	II 2.1.2.3, 3.3.1.5fn. EAL 104 NP loanword
mazg, muzg "brain, marrow"	mazga-	<i>majjấ-</i> "marrow"	maġz	II 2.1.2.3, 3.1.2.4 GEB 229 ELFENBEIN 1985:234 see also <i>majg</i>
mazan "big" mastir "bigger"	maz-	mahánt-	MPM mazan "monster, monstrous"	II 2.1.2.3, 2.2.3.2fn., V 1.2 GEB 227 BARTHOLOMAE 1890:553
maž(ž) "leprosy, epilepsy"				II 3.3.1.5fn. loanword?
masjit "mosque"			masjid	II 3.3.1.4 NP-Ar. loanword
masīt "mosque"				II 3.3.1.4 ROSSI 1979:321 IndAr. loanword
muš- / mušt "rub"	√marəz	√mrj	māl- / mušt	II 2.1.2.4, 2.2.3.3, 2.3.2, III 5.1 GEB 244 BARTHOLOMAE 1901:76 EWAia II:331f. see also marz, marz-
mušt "fist"	mušti-	mu <u>s</u> tí-	mušt	III 1 GEIGER 1891:455 BAILEY 1979:339a
mušk "mouse"		тūṣaka- etc.	mūš	II 2.1.1.1, 2.1.2.4, 3.1.2.2.1 GEB 245 GEIGER 1891:444
mik "nail"				II 3.1.2.2 GEIGER 1891:407 see also <i>mīk(k)</i>
muk "elbow, joint"				III 1
maksad "purpose"			maqṣad	II 3.1.1.2 NP-Ar. loanword

makisk "fly"	maxši- Prth. <mgs></mgs>	mákṣ(ikā)- etc.	magas	II 2.1.1.1, 3.2.1.1 GEB 222 EAL 98
magz "brain"			maġz	II 2.1.2.3, 3.1.2.4 NP loanword see also <i>mazg</i>
mugūnd "small of back"				III 1
<sup>‡</sup> mal- "stroke"			māl- / mālīd	II 3.1.2.2fn. see also <i>marz</i> -
mil(l)- / mil(l)it "meet"				III 5.6 Ind. (Ur.) loanword
$man$ obl. $m(a)n\bar{a}$ gen. $m(a)n\bar{\imath}$ "I"	obl. man-		man	II 3.2.1.3, 3.2.2.3, 3.2.3.2, 3.2.4.3, V 1.4 HORN 1893:222 = NP
man(n) "appreciation"				II 3.3.1.5fn. ELFENBEIN 1990/II:100 Ind. (Lhd.) loanword
min(n)at "favour"			minatt	II 3.3.1.5 NP-Ar. loanword
minaṭ(ṭ) "minute"				II 3.3.1.5fn. Europ. (Engl.) loanword
mind, mind "bitch, daughter"				II 3.1.1.4
mōbat(t), muhbat "love"				II 3.1.3.2, 3.3.2.3 see <i>mahabat</i>
<i>mōṭal</i> "car"				II 3.3.1.7 Europ. (Engl.) loanword (via Psht.)
mūd(d), mīd(d) "hair"			тōу	II 2.3.1.3fn., 3.1.2.3fn. GEB 247 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:200 EWAia II:366 KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:202
mahabat, mābat(t) "love"			maḥabbat	II 3.2.1.3, 3.3.1.5fn. NP-Ar. loanword

muhtaram "honoured"			muḥtaram	II 3.2.4.1 NP-Ar. loanword
<i>mahlūk</i> "people"			maxlūq	II 3.2.3.3 NP-Ar. loanword
mahī "May"				II 1.1, 2.4.3.1 Europ. loanword
mai "us" (obl.)				II 3.2.1.3 see <i>mā</i>
myān "middle; waist"			miyān	III 1 NP loanword see <i>nyām</i>
<i>mētag</i> "village"	maēϑana- "house"		<i>mēhan</i> "homeland"	II 2.1.1.1, 2.1.2.1, 2.3.3 GEB 241 BAILEY 1979:219a
mēj, mēz "table"	miiazda- "sacrifice"	miyéd <sup>h</sup> a-	mēz	II 2.1.2.3fn. BAILEY 1979:326b EWAia II:356 loanword
mēč- / mēt "suck"	maēkant- "(water) coming out"		maz- / mazīd	II 2.1.3.1, 2.3.1.2fn., 3.1.2.3fn., III 5.1 GEB 235 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:98 BAILEY 1979:322b see also <i>mič</i> -
mēz- / mēst "urinate"	maēza-	√mih	mēz- / mēzīd	II 2.1.2.3, III 5.1 GEB 238
mēš "sheep"	maēša- Prth. mēš	meṣá-	mēš	II 3.1.1.3 GEB 240 GEIGER 1891:444 = NP
mēš-murg, mēžmurg "pelican"			mēš-murģ	II 3.1.1.3 GEB 240 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:558 = NP see also <i>mēš</i> , <i>murg</i>
mīk(k), mēk, mēh "stake, pole, top of head"	Prth. mēx	≈ mayū́k <sup>h</sup> a-	mēx	II 2.3.1.3fn., 3.1.2.2.1, 3.1.2.3.2, 3.2.2.1 GEB 239
<i>mēnōl, mēlōn</i> "manhole"				II 3.3.1.1 FARRELL (in print) Europ. (Engl.) loanword

na- (neg.pref.)			na-	V 1.6
nāpag "navel, umbilical cord"	nāfa-	<i>náb<sup>h</sup>ya-</i> etc.	nāf	II 2.1.2.1, III 1 GEB 259 BARTHOLOMAE 1890:553
nā-tamām "incomplete"			nā-tamām	II 3.1.3.4, 3.2.1.1.2 NP(-Ar.) loanword
nār- / narit "groan"			MP <n'ryšn> NP nāl- / nālīd</n'ryšn>	II 2.2.3.2 GEB 260 MORGENSTIERNE 1937:348 NP/MP loanword see also *nard-
<i>nārin`jī</i> "orange"			nārinjī	III 3 GEIGER 1891:456 LOKOTSCH 1927:125 NP loanword
<i>nās</i> "snuff" <i>nāsī</i> "brown"				III 3 Ind. (Ur.) loanword
nākun "fingernail"	Prth. <n(')xwn></n(')xwn>	nak <sup>h</sup> á-	nāxun	II 2.1.2.1, III 1 GEB 257 see also <i>nāhun</i>
<i>nākō</i> "uncle"	OP <i>niyāka-</i> "grandfather" Prth. <i>niyāg</i> "ancestor"		niyā "ancestor"	II 2.2.4.1, 3.1.2.3, 3.1.3.1, 3.1.4.1, 3.2.1.1 GEB 258
<i>nānā, nānō</i> "grandfather"				III 2 GILBERTSON 1925/I:295 Ind. (Si./Ur.) loanword
nānī "grandmother"				III 2 Ind. (Si./Ur.) loanword
nāwak(k) "arrowhead"			nāwak	II 3.3.1.5fn. NP loanword
nā-hak(k) "unjust"			nā-haqq	II 3.3.1.5fn. NP-Ar. loanword
nāhun "fingernail"				II 2.1.2.1, III 1 GEB 257 NP loanword see also nākun

T	T	<b>T</b>	T	1
nibīs- / nibišt "write"			MP nibēs- / nibišt NP niwīs- / niwišt	III 5.4 GEB 261 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:559 MP loanword
naptag "great-great- grandchild"	napāt-, naptar-	nápāt-/náptr-	nawāsa	III 2 see also <i>nafusx</i>
*nard- "groan"			MP <n'ryšn> NP nāl- / nālīd</n'ryšn>	II 2.2.3.2 MORGENSTIERNE 1937:348 see also <i>nār</i> -
naz(z), naz(z)īk "near"	nazdiiō "nearer" Prth. nazd	nédīyas- "nearer"	$nazd(\bar{\imath}k)$	II 2.1.2.3, 2.2.2.6, 3.2.3.1, 3.3.1.5fn. GEB 256
nišār "daughter-in-law"		snuṣấ-	sunār	II 2.2.2.5, 3.1.2.3, 3.2.1.2, III 2 GEB 254 MORGENSTIERNE 1927:54
ništ, nist (past stem of nind-)	√had Prth. <i>nišast</i>	√sad	(nišīn- /) nišast	II 2.1.3.1, 2.2.2.1fn., 3.2.4.1, III 5.1 GEB 264 BARTHOLOMAE 1890:553
EBal. <i>nafusx</i> "stepdaughter"				III 2 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:48 see <i>naptag</i>
nak(k) "grandmother"				II 2.2.4.1fn., 3.1.3.1, III 2 GEB 250 see also $n\bar{a}k\bar{o}$
nigōš- / nigōšt "hear"	√gaoš Prth. <i>nigōš-</i> / <i>nigōšād</i>	$\sqrt{g^h}u\dot{s}$ "sound"	niyōš- / niyōšīd	II 2.1.1.2, III 5.1 GEB 262
nalgis "narcissus"			nargis	II 3.3.1.7 ELFENBEIN 1990/II:107 NP loanword
nimāsag "grandchild"				II 3.2.1.1.2, III 2 Psht. loanword? see nawāsag, naptag
EBal. <i>namāš</i> , <i>nimāš</i> "prayer"	≈ nəmah- "praise" Prth. namāž	≈ námas- "praise"	namāz	II 2.1.3.1, 3.1.2.3, 3.2.1.1 GEB 251 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:568 GERSHEVITCH 1954:152

namb "wet; dew"			nam	II 2.4.3.2fn. GEB 252 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:559
nind- (/ ništ, nist) "sit down"	$\sqrt{\text{had}}$ Prth. $ni\bar{s}\bar{\imath}\delta$ - (/ $ni\bar{s}ast$ )	√sad	nišīn- / nišast	II 2.2.2.1, 3.1.2.1, III 5.1 GEB 264
nun(n)uk "baby"				II 3.3.1.5
nō, nu "9"	паииа	náva-	nuh	III 4 NP loanword
nawāsag "grandchild"			nawāsa	II 2.2.1.4fn., 3.2.1.1, 3.3.1.6, III 2 GEB 255 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:48 NP loanword see <i>naptag</i>
<i>nūn, nū</i> "now"	пйгәт	nūnám	nūn	II 3.1.3.3fn., 3.2.4.3, 3.3.1.5 GEB 270 EWAia II:53
<i>nōd</i> "cloud"	snaoða-		MPZ snōy	II 2.2.2.4, 3.2.1.1 GEB 271 ELFENBEIN 1990/II:105
nawad "90"	nauua <sup>i</sup> ti-	navatí-	nawad	III 4 NP loanword
EBal. <i>nawad</i> "felt"	<i>n∂mata-</i> "brushwood"		namad	II 3.2.1.1.2 HORN 1893:233 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:102 NP loanword
nōzdah, nūzdah "19"			MP nōzdah NP nūzdah	II 3.1.3.3, III 4 NP loanword see dah
naws "pulse"			nafs "soul"	II 3.3.1.6 HÜBSCHMANN 1895:556 NP-Ar. loanword
nōk "new"	nauua- Prth. nōx	náva-	MP nōg NP nau	II 2.1.1.1, 2.1.3.3 GEB 272 = MP
nyām(ag) "middle" nyāmā "in the middle"	maiôiia-	mád <sup>h</sup> ya-	miyān	II 3.2.1.1, 3.3.1.1, III 1fn. GEB 265 HÜBSCHMANN 1890:559

nīl "blue"		<i>nấla-</i> "dark blue"	nīl	III 3 GEIGER 1890:420 EWAia II:51 NP loanword
nēm(ag) "half"	паēта-	<i>néma-</i> "other"	nēm(a)	II 2.1.3.1, 3.3.1.4 GEB 267 GEIGER 1891:444 = NP
nēmrōč, nērmōš "noon"	Prth. nēm-rōž		MP nēm-rōz NP nīm-rōz	II 3.2.1.1 see <i>nēm</i> , <i>rōč</i>
nēmag "butter"				II 3.2.1.1.2 GEB 268
nīmōn "lemon"			līmū(n)	II 3.3.1.2 NP loanword see also $l\bar{t}mb\bar{o}$
nīwag "fruit"			MP mēwag, NP mēwa	II 3.1.2.3.2, 3.3.1.3 GEB 266 NP loanword
u, ō, au "and"	uta	utá	и	II 3.1.2.3 BAILEY 1979:35b NP loanword
wa "and"			wa	II 3.1.2.3fn. HORN 1893:240 NP-Ar. loanword
wāb "sleep"			x <sup>w</sup> āb	II 2.2.1.6, 3.3.1.6 GEB 410 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:42 NP loanword see also waps-
wāja "master, Sir"			xwāja	III 2
wād "salt"		svādú- "sweet, tasty"	x <sup>w</sup> āi "taste, flavour"	II 3.2.1.1 GEB 411
<sup>‡</sup> wārdaf "door-opening"				II 2.2.1.5 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:51 see also <i>dar</i>
wān- / wānt "read"	√x <sup>v</sup> an "sound" Prth. <i>xun- / pad-</i> <i>xunād</i>	√svan "sound"	xwān-/xwānd	II 2.1.3.3, 2.2.1.6, III 5.1 GEB 412

wāngaṛ "eggplant" wāngaṛī "purple"				III 3 Ind. loanword?
wānōk "student"				II 2.1.3.3 from <i>wān</i> -
waps-, waps- / wapt "go to sleep"	$\sqrt{x^{v}}$ ap: $x^{v}$ afsa- Prth. $xusp-/xuft$	√svap	xusp- / xuft	II 2.1.2.3, 2.2.1.6, 3.1.1.2, 3.2.1.1, III 5.1 GEB 403
wat "self"	x <sup>v</sup> a- Prth. wxad	svá-	$xud < x^wad$	II 2.2.1.6, 2.3.1.2, V 1.4 GEB 408
watī "own" (poss. pron.)				II 3.2.1.1, V 1.4 gen. of wat
waj(j) "dowry"			wajh?	II 3.3.1.5 NP-Ar. loanword?
war- / wārt "eat"	x <sup>v</sup> ara- Prth. wxar- / wxard		xwar-/xwurd	II 2.1.3.2, 2.2.1.6, 3.1.1.4, 3.2.3.1, III 5.1, V 1.6 GEB 404
wardaš "exercise"	√varəz "work"		warziš "sports"	II 3.2.1.1.2 = NP
warnā "young"	apərənāiiu- "underaged"		<i>burnā</i> "young man"	II 2.1.3.3 KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:217 Pers. loanword
was(s) "strength"				II 3.3.1.5fn. DAMES 1891:101 Ind. (Si.) loanword
wasir-zā(t)k "brother-in-law"				II 3.1.2.3,, 3.2.1.2fn., III 2 GEB 405 see also <i>wasirk</i>
wasirk "father-in-law"	x <sup>v</sup> asura-	śváśura-	xusur	II 3.1.2.3, 3.1.3.1, 3.2.1.1.1, 3.2.1.2, III 2 GEB 405
$was(s)\bar{u}(g),$ $was(s)\bar{i}(g)$ "mother-in-law"		śvaśrű-	x <sup>w</sup> aš	II 2.2.2.5, 2.3.1.3, 3.1.2.3.1, III 2 GEB 406
waš(š) "good"	Prth. wxaš		x <sup>w</sup> aš	II 2.2.3.3, 3.2.1.1 GEB 407 KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:204

-ōk (agentive suff.)	Prthōg		MP -ōg	II 2.1.1.1, 2.1.3.3, 3.2.1.1, V 1.8
wakt, waxt "time"			waqt, waxt	II 1.2.2fn., 3.3.1.7 NP-Ar. loanword see also wahd
wakšī, waškī "wild"			waḥšī	II 1.2.2, 3.1.1.2 NP-Ar. loanword
-ūg (noun suff.)			MP -ūg, NP -ū	II 2.1.1.1, 3.1.4.1, V 1.8
wal(l) "creeper, vine"				II 3.3.1.5fn. DAMES 1891:101 Ind. (Si.) loanword
-ōm (1pl.pres.)				V 1.6 see also (-)an, -ēn
$-\bar{Q}$ (1sg.past)				V 1.6 see also (-)un, (-)ā
- <i>ū</i> (1.pl.past)				V 1.6 see also (-)an, -ēn
-ū/ (pron.suff. 1sg.+pl.)				V 1.4 see also -un, -in, -ā
wahd "time"			waqt, waxt	II 3.2.3.3, 3.3.1.7 NP-Ar. loanword see also <i>wakt</i>
wahl "crooked"		vakrá-	x <sup>w</sup> ahl	II 2.2.1.4 KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:206
hāk "earth"			xāk	II 2.4.1.2 GEB 154 GEIGER 1891:444 = NP see also $\bar{a}k$
hākim, ḥākim "governor"			<u>ḥā</u> kim	II 3.3.2.3fn. NP-Ar. loanword
hālīg "empty"			xālī	II 1.2.2 NP-Ar. loanword

п	1	1		<u>,                                      </u>
hāmag "raw"			xām	II 2.1.1.1, 2.4.1 GEB 155 EAL 64 = NP see also <i>āmag</i>
habdah, hawdah "17"			MP haft-dah NP habdah, hifdah	II 3.3.1.2fn., III 4 NP loanword see <i>haft</i> and <i>dah</i>
habar, xabar "word, matter"			xabar	II 1.2.2, 2.3.1.1, 3.2.3.3fn. NP-Ar. loanword
hapt, haft "7"	hapta-	saptá-	haft	II 2.1.2.1fn., 3.2.1.1, III 4 GEIGER 1891:432 NP loanword
haptād, haftād "70"	haptā <sup>i</sup> ti-	saptatí-	haftād	III 4 NP loanword
hapōg, hapōk "co-wife, second wife"	≈ hapaϑnī-	≈ sapátnī-	hawū ≈ āmūsnī	II 3.3.1.6, III 2 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:47
hatar, hitar "danger, fear"			xaṭar	II 1.2.2, 3.3.2.3 NP-Ar. loanword
hudā "God"			xudā	II 1.2.2, 3.2.4.1 GEIGER 1891:450 NP loanword s.a <i>kudā</i>
(h)idrik "squirrel"				II 3.3.1.1 see also (h)irdik
hidmat, xidmat "service"			xidmat	II 1.2.2 NP-Ar. loanword
had(d) "bone"				II 3.3.1.5+fn. Ind. (Ur.) loanword
har, xar "donkey"			xar	II 2.1.2.1 GEB 152, 192 NP loanword see also <i>kar</i>
harāb, xarāō "bad"			xarāb "out of order"	II 1.2.2, 3.3.1.6, 3.3.2.1 NP-Ar. loanword see also <i>karāb</i>
harč, harj, xarč "costs"			xarj	II 3.3.1.4 NP-Ar. loanword

(h)irdik "squirrel"				II 3.3.1.1 see also (h)idrik
hariš "ell"	OP arašni-	aratní-	ar(a)š	II 2.4.1.2 GEB 153 KENT 1953:170 BRANDENSTEIN/ MAYRHOFER 1964:104 NP loanword
harkat "motion"			ḥarakat	II 3.3.2.1 NP-Ar. loanword
hurmā(g) "date"			MP, NP xormā	II 2.1.2.1, 3.2.4.1 MORGENSTIERNE 1932:47 = NP see also <i>urmāg</i>
haždah "18"			MP hašt-dah NP hijdah	III 4 NP loanword see <i>hašt</i> and <i>dah</i>
hisāb "calculation"			ḥisāb	II 3.2.4.1, 3.3.1.6 NP-Ar. loanword
haš(š) "millstone"			ās	II 3.3.1.5 Kurd. loanword?
huš- / hušt "dry (itr.)"	√haoš Prth. $h\bar{o}$ š- / $h\bar{o}$ š $\bar{a}$ d	√šuṣ	xōš- / xōšīd	II 2.1.2.5, III 5.1 GEB 160
hašt "8"	ašta	aṣṭá-	hašt	III 4 NP loanword
hišt "brick"	Prth. <hyštyg></hyštyg>		xišt	II 2.4.1.3 EAL 68 = NP see also <i>išt</i>
haštād "80"	aštā <sup>i</sup> ti-	≈ aśītí-	hāštād	III 4 NP loanword
hušk "dry"	huška- Prth. hušk	súṣka-	xušk	II 2.1.2.5, 3.2.3.1 GEB 160
hak(k) "right"			haqq	II 3.2.3.1 NP-Ar. loanword
hukūmat(t) "government"			hukūmat	II 3.3.1.5 NP-Ar. loanword

<i>halās</i> "finished"			xalāṣ	II 1.2.2 NP-Ar. loanword
halk "village, people"			xalq	II 1.2.2 NP-Ar. loanword
ham "also"	ham° "together" Prth. ham	sám "together"	ham	II 2.1.2.5, 3.2.3.1, 3.2.4.1, 3.3.1.4 GEB 150 GEIGER 1891:444 = NP
ham-ā "that very"			ham-ān	II 3.2.1.1.2 see <i>ham</i> , $\bar{a}$
humb "jar"			xum(b)	II 2.1.2.1 NP loanword see also <i>kumb</i>
hamjirāt "wives of brothers"				III 2
hamrāh "companion"			ham-rāh	II 3.2.3.1 NP loanword
ham-zāmāt, ham- zāmās "husbands of sisters"				III 2 see <i>ham</i> and <i>zāmāt</i>
hamzulp "husbands of sisters"				III 2
hamsā(h)ig "neighbour"			hamsāya	II 2.1.2.3fn., 2.4.1.2 = NP see $s\bar{a}$ 'ig
halma, ḥamlā "attack"			ḥamla	II 3.3.1.1 NP-Ar. loanword
hind, hind "bitch, girl"				П 3.1.1.4
hand- / handit "laugh"			xand-	II 2.1.2.1, III 5.4 GEB 152, 186 NP loanword see <i>kand</i> -
<i>haur</i> "rain"	<i>aβra-</i> "rain cloud"	ab <sup>h</sup> rá- "rain cloud"	abr "cloud"	II 2.3.3fn., 2.4.1, 3.2.1.2 GEB 163

l .			<u> </u>	
<i>hūrt</i> "tiny"			xurd	II 2.2.1.6fn., 3.1.2.2fn., 3.1.2.3.1 MORGENSTIERNE 1937:347
<i>hōrk, hurk</i> "empty"				II 2.1.2.1fn., 3.1.2.2.1 GEIGER 1891:451 ROSSI 1979:29
hōš(ag) "ear of corn"			xōša	II 2.4.1.3 GEIGER 1891:451 MORGENSTIERNE 1948:289 = NP
hūk "pig"	hū	<i>sū-kará-</i> "boar"	MP xūg NP xūk	II 2.1.2.5, 2.3.1.3 GEB 157 EWAia II:738
hōn, hūn "blood"	vohunī-	≈ vásā- "fat"	MP xōn NP xūn	II 3.1.3.3, 3.2.3.2 GEB 162 GEIGER 1891:444 EWAia II:533 NP loanword
hayāl "thought"			xayāl, xiyāl	II 1.2.2 NP-Ar. loanword see also <i>kīāl</i>
<i>hīt</i> "young grain"			MP xwēd NP xawēd	II 2.2.1.6, 3.1.2.3 GEIGER 1891:423
hēd "sweat"	x <sup>ν</sup> aēδa-	svéda-	x <sup>w</sup> ai	II 2.2.1.6, 2.3.3, 3.3.1.4 GEB 158
hairāt, xairāt, xērāt "alms, charity"			xairāt	II 1.2.2, 3.3.2.2 NP-Ar. loanword
hēriat "health" xairiat "healthy"			xairiyat "welfare"	II 1.2.2, 3.3.2.2 NP-Ar. loanword see also <i>kēriat</i>
hēž(ž)ag, hīž(ž)ag "howling of the wind"				II 3.3.1.5fn.
haik, haig, hēk, hāik "egg"			xāya	II 2.1.3.3, 2.4.1.3fn., 3.3.2.1 GEB 159 NP loanword see also <i>ā-murg</i>

-ai, -ē (gen.sg.)			V 1.1
-ai, -ē (2sg.)			V 1.6 see also <i>ai</i> , $\bar{e}$
$-\bar{e}$ (indef. article) "one"	aēuua- Prth. ēw	-ē	II 2.1.3.3, 3.2.4.2, V 1.1
-ē, -ī (pron.suff. 3sg. +pl.)			V 1.4 see also $-i\check{s}$ , $-\bar{e}\check{s}$ , $-\bar{q}$
-ī (abstract suff.)	Prth. $-\bar{t}f(t)$	MP - <i>īh</i> , - <i>ī</i> NP - <i>ī</i>	II 2.2.1.5, V 1.8 GEIGER 1891:408 NP loansuffix
-ī (3sg.pres.)			V 1.6 see also - <i>t</i> , - <i>īt</i>
-ē (2pl.)			II 3.2.4.3, V 1.6 see also -it, -ēt; ē
yāt "memory"		yād	II 2.1.3.4, 3.3.1.4 BAILEY 1979:308a NP loanword
<i>yār</i> "friend"		yār	II 2.1.3.4 NP loanword
yāzdah "11"		yāzdah	II 2.1.3.4, III 4 NP loanword
yāsumī, āsamī "jasmine"		yāsamīn	II 3.3.1.7, 3.3.2.3 GEIGER 1891:463 NP loanword
<i>yākūt, ākūtt</i> "ruby"	Prth. <y'kwnd></y'kwnd>	yāqūt, yākand	II 3.3.1.7 NP loanword (from Greek)
-ēt (2pl.)	Prthēd	-īd	V 1.6 see also -it, -ē
- <i>īt</i> (3sg.pres.)	≈ Prthēd		II 3.1.2.2.1, 3.1.2.3.2, 3.2.1.3, V 1.6 see also -t, - $\bar{t}$
yatīm, atīm "orphan"		yatīm	II 2.1.3.4, 3.3.1.7 NP-Ar. loanword
yax(x) "cold"		yax "ice"	II 3.3.1.5fn. NP loanword

ēš (dem.pron.) "this"			V 1.4 see also $\bar{e}$ , $i\check{s}$ -
-ēš (pron.suff. 3pl.)			V 1.4 see also $-\bar{e}$ , $-i\check{s}$ , $-\bar{q}$
yak(k) "one"		yak	II 2.1.1.1, 2.1.3.4, 3.3.1.5, III 4 NP loanword see also -ē
$-\bar{\iota}g$ (nominal suff.)	Prthīg, -ī	MP -īg, -ī NP -ī	II 2.1.1.1, 2.1.3.4, 2.2.1.5fn., 3.1.4.1, V 1.8 DURKIN-MEISTERERNST p. 115, 117 = MP
<i>yal</i> "brave"		yal	II 2.1.3.4 NP-Turk. loanword
yala, ēla "free"		yala	II 3.2.3.3 ELFENBEIN 1990/II:163 NP loanword
<i>īn</i> (dem.pron.) "this"		īn	II 3.2.2.3, V 1.4fn. = NP
-ēn (adj.suff.)	-aēna- Prthēn	-īn	II 2.3.3, 3.1.2.3.2fn., 3.1.3.3, 3.2.2.3, 3.2.3.3, 3.2.4.3, V 1.2
-ēn (1pl.)			II 3.2.4.3, V 1.6 see also (-)an, -ōm, -ū; ēn
- <i>īn</i> (1sg.pres.)			II 3.1.3.3, V 1.6 see also (-) $\bar{q}$
-ēn- (caus. suff.)		MP -ēn-	II 2.1.3.4, V 1.6 Geiger 1891 HENNING 1934:212 KLINGENSCHMITT 2000:195 <sup>16</sup> DURKIN-MEISTERERNST p. 155 MP loansuffix?
-ēn- (irrealis suff.)			II 3.2.4.3, 3.3.2.1fn., V 1.6

## 3. Index of Non-Balochi words and word forms

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<sup>1</sup> On transcription, transliteration and sources, cf. I 1.5.2. Some words and reconstructions of questionable existence or relevance have been omitted.

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#### 4. Bibliography<sup>1</sup>

#### Abbreviations:

ABG = AHMAD 1985

BMC = glossary in BARKER/MENGAL 1969/II (pp. 403ff.)

DTB = glossary in DAMES 1891

EAL = ELFENBEIN 1990/II EVM = ELFENBEIN 1963

EWAia = MAYRHOFER 1992-2001

FBB = FARRELL 1990

GCD = GILBERTSON 1925

GEB = GEIGER 1890

IEW = POKORNY 1959

KEWA = Mayrhofer 1956-1980

LIV = Rix (ed.) 2001

SHG = SAYAD HASHMI 2000

ABAEV I-IV = Vasilij I. ABAEV 1958-1989: *Istoriko-etimologičeskij slovar' osetinskogo jazyka*. Moscow / Leningrad, 4 vol.

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